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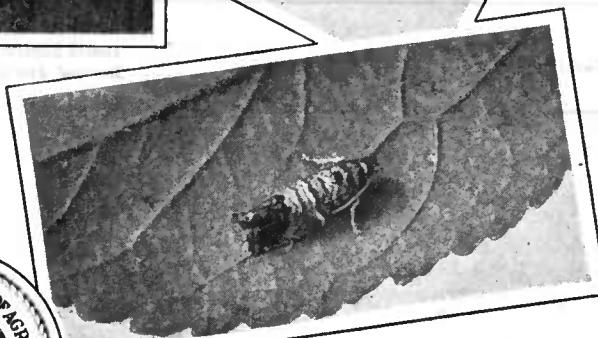
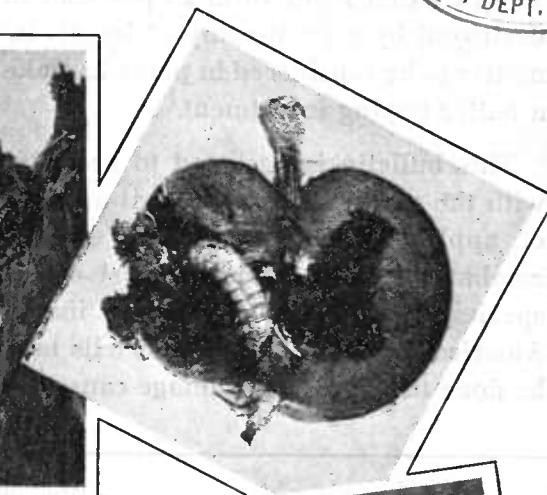
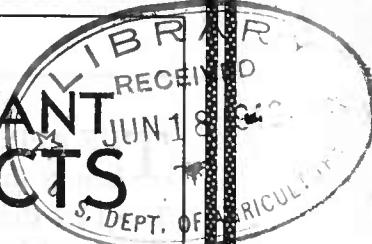
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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
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FARMERS' BULLETIN No. 1270

The
**MORE IMPORTANT
APPLE INSECTS**



THE APPLE ranks as king of American fruits and brings the farmers nearly \$200,000,000 each year. The fact that from 10 to 20 per cent of the crop is destroyed by a great army of insects is, therefore, a matter to be considered in plans to make the orchard a better paying investment.

This bulletin is designed to acquaint the grower with the many insect pests that may attack his crop of apples and the means by which he can best combat them. It contains short descriptions of 62 species or groups of species of insects that infest American apple orchards and tells briefly what can be done to reduce the damage caused by them.

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THE MORE IMPORTANT APPLE INSECTS

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THE APPLE CROP AND LOSSES FROM INSECTS

THE APPLE, king of fruits, has assumed a high rank among American agricultural products. In the United States its average monetary value to the farmers over the 5-year period 1925-1929 has been placed at about \$188,000,000. The financial success of the apple industry is dependent, however, upon several factors, and among these insects play an important rôle. The annual loss to the apple crop through insect ravages is somewhat variable, changing from year to year, not only in the large fruit-growing districts but in individual orchards as well. Although it is extremely difficult to estimate the yearly loss due to insects, a fairly conservative estimate would place it at between 10 and 20 per cent of the crop value, or, at the lower figure, about \$19,000,000. To this should be added the loss of the trees themselves as the result of infestations of apple-tree borers, scale insects, etc., and the considerable amount expended for spraying apparatus, insecticides, and labor.

In this bulletin an attempt has been made to acquaint the fruit grower with the general distribution, descriptions, life history, and control of the apple insects with which he is likely to be troubled. The orchardist would do well to study carefully the insects causing important injury, in order that remedial measures may be intelligently applied.

CODLING MOTH

The codling moth, *Carpocapsa pomonella* L., or "apple worm" as it is commonly called, is unquestionably the insect causing the greatest damage to apples, as it annually destroys or renders unfit for commercial purposes millions of dollars worth of fruit, despite present efforts to control it by spraying. It should not be inferred, however, that spraying measures are ineffective, for it has been amply demonstrated that thorough and timely spraying will usually yield from 90 to 95 per cent and often more of worm-free fruit, except in some of the semiarid regions of the West where this insect is unusually abundant and destructive. In the absence of combative measures, the codling moth will frequently infest from 25 to 90 per cent or more of the fruit, depending upon the locality, seasonal and weather conditions, size of the crop, and other contributing factors. Apples infested with this insect are commonly called "wormy apples" (figs. 1, 2, and 3), but to avoid possible confusion it should

be borne in mind that apples may also be wormy through infestation by other pests, as the apple maggot (p. 15), lesser apple worm (p. 8), etc.

NATURE OF INJURY

Shortly after hatching from the egg, the larva or worm eats its way into the flesh of the apple, usually feeding in the direction of the core where it frequently attacks the seeds.

A considerable but variable proportion of the first brood enters through the calyx or blossom end, while the later or summer-brood worms apparently prefer to enter through the side of the apple. A favorite place of entrance is at the point where two apples are in contact. As the codling-moth larva tunnels through the fruit, it grows and makes a correspondingly larger feeding area, which becomes more or less packed with dark reddish-brown to blackish pellets, which are gradually pushed out toward the entrance hole. Upon attaining their full growth, some larvae leave the fruit by way of their entrance holes, while others make their exit at another point, thus producing in the same apple two holes, an entrance and an exit. Another type of injury frequently found in the semiarid fruit regions of the West, and other fruit districts, where the codling moth is abundant, is known as the "sting" and the affected apples are called "stung" fruit. The

FIGURE 1.—Wormy apple caused by codling-moth larva entering calyx end of fruit

two holes, an entrance and an exit. Another type of injury frequently found in the semiarid fruit regions of the West, and other fruit districts, where the codling moth is abundant, is known as the "sting" and the affected apples are called "stung" fruit. The



FIGURE 2.—A worm-injured apple, showing codling-moth worm in fruit (left half)

typical sting is caused by a worm eating a small hole (about the size of a pinhead) through the skin of the apple, after which it makes a shallow excavation in the flesh to the depth of about one-sixteenth to one-eighth of an inch and sufficiently large to accommodate the body of the young worm. These so-called stings are frequently made by larvae that have been poisoned but which are able to complete the sting pocket before dying from the effects of the arsenical poisoning.

Occasionally worms complete a sting pocket and then for some unknown reason leave it to enter the fruit at another point. It is also quite possible that some larvae after having eaten through the skin are washed off by heavy rains or are blown or brushed off during windstorms. Although apples having a few stings usually are not damaged seriously except perhaps as to keeping qualities, they are nevertheless discriminated against by the buyers and placed in a lower grade, thus making this type of injury of commercial importance.

Some codling-moth larvae feed to a certain extent upon the foliage of the apple previous to their attack upon the fruit. They usually eat into the lower surface of the leaf, either along the midrib or at the juncture of a vein with the midrib. This leaf-feeding habit is of negligible importance as to foliage injury, but is of some consequence from the control standpoint in that some larvae may be killed or weakened by eating the poison before they reach the fruit.

LIFE HISTORY

The codling moth passes the winter in the larval stage, inclosed in a silken cocoon (fig. 4), which is about three-fourths of an inch in length. The over-wintering larva is about the same length as the cocoon and is usually of a dirty white color with a brown head. The larvae normally make their cocoons beneath the bark scales of the trunk and larger limbs, in tree crotches, and in decayed stubs resulting from improperly pruned limbs; they also spin up in trash about the orchards, in cracks of the soil adjacent to the tree, in field harvest boxes, in packing houses, etc. In the spring the larva transforms successively into the pupa (fig. 4) and moth (fig. 5). The pupa is about half an inch in length and varies in color from dark yellow to brown. The abdomen is movable at the joints between segments 3 to 7, and each has two transverse rows of spines on the upper surface, except the first and the last three, the first being bare, while the last three have one row each. The moth is somewhat variable in size, but the wing expanse averages about three-fourths of an inch. The front wings are crossed by irregular dark and light bands except the tips, each of which bears a dark metallic brown spot or ocellus. The moth, which is seldom seen by the orchardist, usually



FIGURE 3.—Apple infested with the codling moth. Note frass pushed out of larval burrow

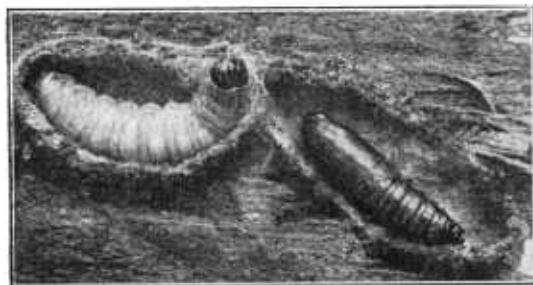


FIGURE 4.—Codling-moth larva and pupa within cocoons beneath bark of apple tree. Twice natural size

conceals itself in or about the tree during the day, but becomes more active about twilight, when it deposits a majority of its eggs. The first-brood eggs are usually found on the foliage, whereas those of the summer brood are as a rule deposited on both the fruit and foliage. The egg is about the size of a pinhead, flat, round to oval in shape, the surface being covered with a network of ridges, and when freshly laid is pearly white. The young larva which hatches from the egg feeds chiefly upon the fruit, and after attaining its full growth leaves the apple and spins its cocoon on the tree trunk or in other places, as elsewhere noted. In districts having two or more generations, part of the first-brood larvae soon transform to pupae, while the others remain in the larval stage until the following spring. Those that transform the same season as hatched produce a new generation. In the more northern fruit-growing districts of the United States, as in New England, there is a small second generation, whereas in some of our extreme southern regions, as in the Pecos Valley of New Mexico, as many as three generations and a partial fourth may develop. In any locality the relative abundance of

worms, especially those developing late in the season, varies from year to year, largely in accordance with the weather conditions. If the season is early, dry, and hot, a larger number of worms than usual will be produced, whereas during late, cool, and wet seasons the reverse is true. The orchardist should therefore study the seasonal weather conditions, and if these are favorable to the codling moth supplemental spray treatments should be applied.

The length of the different stages of the codling moth varies with the climatic conditions. In the spring the pupal stage averages about three weeks, with an approximate range of from two to six, while later in the season this stage is shortened to an

average of about two weeks. The incubation period of the egg during the relatively cool spring weather will frequently extend over two weeks, although the average period is usually about eight or nine days. Later in the season this average is reduced to six or seven days, and there are records in the Bureau of Entomology of an incubation period as short as four days. The feeding period of the larva is also prolonged in the spring, sometimes almost to two months, with an average of about three to four weeks, while during the summer the larvae usually complete their feeding within about three weeks.

CONTROL

The control of the codling moth is largely effected by spraying with a poison, such as lead arsenate, described on page 92. The number of spray applications required to secure satisfactory results will vary with the locality, the number of generations, and the relative abundance of the insect. In the northern latitudes good control is frequently obtained with from one to three applications, whereas in districts having longer seasons, or wherever the moth is



FIGURE 5.—Codling moth resting on apple leaf. Three times natural size

naturally abundant, as in the semiarid valleys of the West, it is often necessary to spray from five to seven times.

The time of the application is very important, and although no definite schedule that will meet satisfactorily the conditions obtaining in all parts of the country can be given here, the following suggestions will be of value. *The first application* should be made in every orchard just after the blossoms have dropped (fig. 184) and this application should be completed before the calyx lobes close (fig. 185). In order to cover large orchards in time it is often necessary to commence spraying when only from 85 to 90 per cent of the blossoms have fallen, but care should be taken not to spray when the trees are in bloom and attractive to bees. The object of this application is to deposit in the calyx cup a quantity of poison sufficient to kill all the larvae that endeavor later to enter the apple through the calyx end. The calyx cup is open at the time the blossoms drop, but is closed about a week later, after which it will be too late to force the poison into the cavity. No subsequent spray can be of much value in preventing calyx worms, hence the great importance of this application.

The first larvae or worms begin to hatch in most sections about three or four weeks after the blossoms have fallen, although in some districts, and particularly if the weather is warm, a few worms will hatch in from two to three weeks following the fall of the bloom. *The second spray* should therefore be applied in from two to four weeks after the first in order to coat the leaves and young fruit with poison just previous to the hatching of the early worms. In fruit districts where the insect is difficult to control, one or two additional applications against the first brood should be made so as to provide a fresh covering of poison during the period when these worms are attacking the fruit in large numbers. It is highly important to spray thoroughly against the first-brood worms so as to reduce their number to a minimum, since this brood is the sole progenitor of the later generations.

The second-brood worms begin to hatch in about 8 to 10 weeks after the petals have dropped. In some of the Northern States there may be so few of these as to render it unnecessary to make a special application for them. In most fruit districts, however, it is essential to spray at this time, and in heavily infested regions *an additional application* for the second brood should be made in time to have the fruit covered with poison when the worms are hatching in maximum numbers. Additional spray applications will usually be necessary where there are three and four generations, but care should be taken that spraying is not done too close to the harvest season, so as to avoid the presence of spray residue on the marketed fruit. Any arsenical residue in excess of the tolerance permitted by the Federal Food and Drug Administration must be removed by suitable cleansing methods before the fruit is packed.

Lead arsenate in the proportion of 1¹ pound to 50 gallons of water or fungicide is recommended for the control of the codling moth. The powdered form is preferable to the paste, since it is more convenient to use and can be kept more easily from one season to another

¹ In many districts where the codling moth is a serious pest it is advisable to use 1½ pounds of lead arsenate.

without deterioration. It is usually desirable in commercial practice to combine lead arsenate with a fungicide such as dilute lime-sulphur or Bordeaux mixture, and often with a contact insecticide, like nicotine sulphate, for the simultaneous treatment of chewing and sucking insects and the prevention of the common fungous diseases. (See spray schedules, pp. 100 and 103.)

A power sprayer having sufficient capacity and pressure is essential for commercial orchards. This should be equipped with well-made hose and couplings, and if the trees are large should be provided

preferably with a spray tower (fig. 182), so that the higher parts of the trees may be treated thoroughly.

In badly infested regions spraying is sometimes supplemented with the so-called banding method, which consists in placing around the tree trunk a burlap band under which many of the worms

FIGURE 6.—Apples deformed by the plum curculio.

will collect after they leave the fruit. These bands should be examined at regular intervals and the insects found beneath destroyed. The orchardist should bear in mind that many of the worms beneath the bands will soon become moths and that unless they are destroyed before they reach this stage the moths will escape and deposit more eggs.

During the harvest, many worms leave the fruit while it is being handled in the packing house. These worms spin up for the winter in field boxes and other containers and in cracks and crevices of the packing house. By early summer they will have become moths which, if not confined, will fly to the orchard and deposit eggs. If feasible, the escape of the moths should be prevented by screening the windows and closing up any other possible exit.

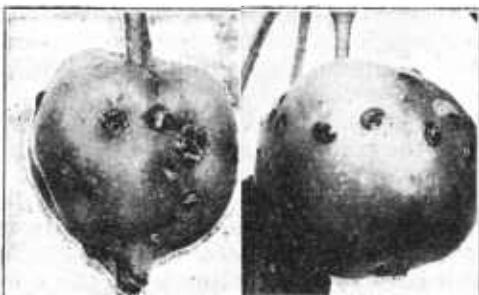


FIGURE 7.—Egg punctures made by the plum curculio.

PLUM CURCULIO

The plum curculio (*Conotrachelus nenuphar* Herbst) probably ranks in importance next to the codling moth as an apple pest and is responsible for much of the misshapen and gnarly fruit (fig. 6) that is commonly found in orchards. It is a native species and feeds upon plums, haws, etc. While the plum curculio attacks the apple and other pome fruits, it is especially injurious to the stone fruits, and in addition to these is also reported from other hosts. It is widely distributed in the States east of the Rocky Mountains, but is not known to occur farther West.

NATURE OF INJURY

The injury to the apple is chiefly confined to the egg punctures (fig. 7), made by the females in the spring, and the feeding punctures, made by both sexes in the spring and fall. The egg puncture is made by the snout of the female and is very distinctive, consisting of a small cavity or hole in the flesh of the fruit just below the skin. The female then cuts with her snout a small crescent-shaped incision just in front of the place where the egg was deposited. The feeding puncture is a small circular opening about the size of a pinhead, extending into the flesh of the apple for a distance of about one-sixteenth of an inch and is produced by the snout of the beetle in the course of its feeding.

Fruit that is badly punctured early in the season is likely to drop, and many of the larvae that hatch therein develop to maturity, since the fallen fruits furnish conditions favorable to the growth of the grubs. The punctured fruit remaining on the tree is usually dwarfed and gnarly in appearance, but the curculio larvae seldom if ever develop to maturity in it. Late varieties of apples sometimes outgrow the egg punctures more or less, though many of them are conspicuous at harvest as irregular, yellowish-brown, corky areas, often somewhat elevated above the surface of the apple. The fall-feeding puncture (fig. 8) of the curculio differs from the spring-feeding puncture and is fairly characteristic. The beetles prefer the calyx or stem ends, where small holes are eaten through the skin, under which, with the hole as a center, the flesh is eaten out as far as the length of the beetle's snout will permit. This results in a discolored ring of skin around the opening, which may later become enlarged into a shallow pit, as it becomes invaded with decay-producing organisms. These pits may be further excavated by the beetles, and the latter can often be found feeding or resting in them. The beetles, also feed on the foliage in the spring and fall, eating out small, circular holes.



FIGURE 8.—Fall-feeding punctures of the plum curculio



FIGURE 9.—The plum curculio on a peach. Twice natural size

LIFE HISTORY

The plum curculio spends the winter in the adult or beetle stage, usually hibernating in protected places, as beneath trash in orchards or in near-by woods. The adult (fig. 9) is a small brownish snout beetle and varies somewhat in length, averaging about one-fourth of an inch. Early in the spring the beetles emerge from their hibernating quarters, some of them reaching the apple trees before the blos-

soming period. As soon as the young fruit is set, the beetles attack it, as previously described. The curculio egg is elliptical and whitish with a smooth, shiny surface, and measures about one-fortieth of an inch in length by one-sixtieth of an inch in width. A full-grown larva is about five-sixteenths of an inch in length, footless, yellowish white with a brownish head. Upon completing its feeding period, the larva leaves the fruit and enters the soil, forming a pupal cell, in which it transforms successively to the pupal and adult stages. The pupa is whitish and about three-sixteenths of an inch in length. The adults emerge in two or three weeks, and in the far South some individuals deposit eggs giving rise to a second generation. The beetles feed upon the fruit and foliage until the approach of cold weather, when they seek hibernating quarters.

CONTROL MEASURES

The most practical means of control are spraying with lead arsenate and the cleaning up of trash from the orchards and vicinity

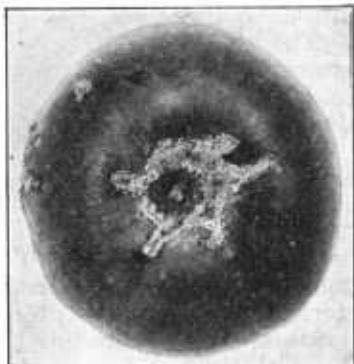


FIGURE 10.—Work of lesser apple worm in calyx end of apple

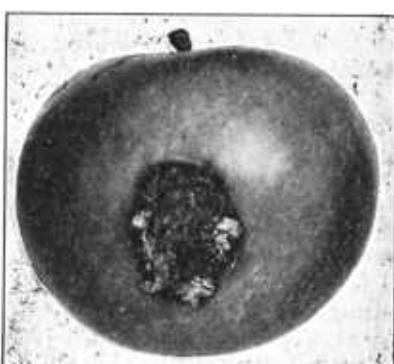


FIGURE 11.—Injury to side of apple by lesser apple worm

as well as thorough cultivation during the summer. Destruction of trash removes favorable hibernating quarters, while cultivation at the proper time will kill the delicate pupae within the soil. The prompt collection and destruction of the infested, fallen fruit will also aid in reducing this pest. *The first spray application* to poison the beetles should be applied in the pink cluster-bud stage, and the second as soon as the blossom petals have dropped, using lead arsenate in the proportion of 1 pound to 50 gallons of water or fungicide. Supplemental treatments are desirable in orchards where the curculio is more than ordinarily destructive.

LESSER APPLE WORM

The lesser apple worm (*Laspeyresia prunivora* Walsh) as a rule is not noticeably injurious, except periodically in the Ozark Mountain regions and less regularly in the New England and Middle Atlantic States. When abundant, however, the later generations in particular will frequently cause as much damage to the fruit as the codling moth.

This insect is closely related to the codling moth and, like it, feeds upon the flesh of the apple. The type of injury, however, is somewhat different, since the larvae of the present species usually feed near the surface of the fruit, frequently excavating just beneath the skin. (Figs. 10 and 11.) In some instances however, the larvae penetrate deeper into the flesh, causing injury quite similar to that of the codling moth. The larvae will attack any portion of the fruit but seems to prefer the calyx basin cavity, although entrance through the side is very common. The typical injury results in a blotch mine which is very conspicuous and unsightly. The lesser apple worm usually does not complete its feeding as early as does the codling moth, and as a result it is not infrequently found at work after the fruit has been barreled. The lesser apple worm is doubtless a native insect and has long been known to feed upon species of thorn apple, crab apple, and wild plum. It is primarily of economic importance as an apple pest, but has been reported on many of our common deciduous-tree fruits as well as on black knot of plum and galls of the oak and elm.

LIFE HISTORY AND HABITS

The life history and habits of the lesser apple worm are quite similar to those of the codling moth. (See p. 3.) The winter is passed in the larval stage within silken cocoons beneath the loose bark of fruit trees, in barrels or boxes which have contained infested fruit, in packing houses, or in almost any place accessible to the larvae at the time they leave the fruit. When full grown the larva is about five-sixteenths of an inch in length, fusiform in shape, uniformly reddish or flesh colored above and lighter below, the head being brown to dark brown. The moths emerge in the spring about the same time as the codling moth and deposit their eggs upon the foliage. The moth is small, having dark-colored front wings, with the part near the body irregularly covered with rust red. The eggs are usually oval, slightly convex, covered with a network of ridges, and have a diameter of about one-fortieth of an inch. When freshly laid the egg is pearly white, resembling somewhat, except for its smaller size, that of the codling moth. The number of generations varies with the locality, there being a partial second generation in the North and as many as three and a partial fourth generation in the southern apple districts.

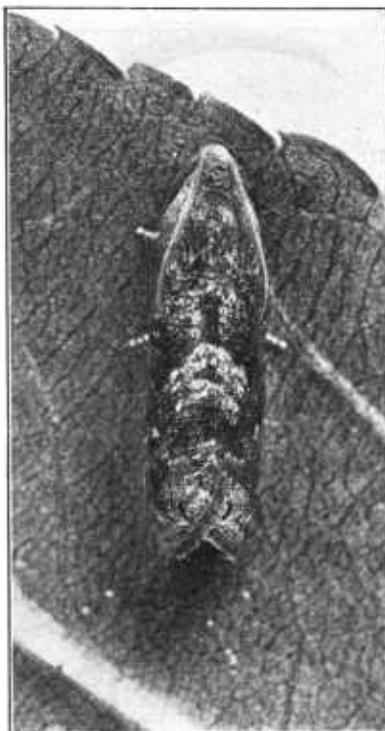


FIGURE 12.—Oriental fruit moth on a leaf. Enlarged seven times

Since the life history and habits of the lesser apple worm are quite similar to those of the codling moth, thorough treatments as indicated for the latter (p. 4) will obviate the necessity of special control measures for this pest.

ORIENTAL FRUIT MOTH

The oriental fruit moth (*Laspeyresia molesta* Busck), introduced accidentally into the United States, probably from the Orient, is now a major pest of the peach and quince. In recent years, however, there have been indications that it may become an important apple insect, particularly

where the apple and peach are interplanted or where these two fruits are grown in close proximity. The oriental fruit moth is now widely distributed in practically all of the important peach districts east of the Mississippi River and apparently is rapidly spreading to the West.

LIFE HISTORY AND HABITS

The general life history² of this insect is in many respects quite similar to that of the codling moth, to which it is closely related. The winter is passed as a full-grown slender larva, about one-half inch in length and of a pinkish-red color, protected by a silken cocoon. The cocoons are to be found beneath bark flakes on various parts of the tree trunk and limbs, just beneath the soil at the base of the tree,

FIGURE 13.—Peach tip injured by feeding of larva of the oriental fruit moth within the twig

attached to, or within, mummified fruits, or under trash and loose surface soil, particularly in the area covered by the spread of the tree. About the time the peach is in bloom the moths begin to emerge. The moth (fig. 12) is rather inconspicuous, grayish brown, with a wing expanse of about one-half inch. The moths coming from the overwintering larvae deposit eggs on the foliage of the peach, and from these eggs the larvae of the first brood come. These larvae enter the tips of the peach shoots (fig. 13) and complete their feeding within the succulent tissue (fig. 14).

Upon the completion of their feeding period they leave the twig, make their cocoons, and later transform into the moth stage. The

² Since the oriental fruit moth is not an apple pest early in the season, its life history on the peach is given.

moths of this generation lay eggs from which develop the second-brood larvae. These also prefer the soft tissue of growing peach shoots, but frequently are compelled to enter more than one tip before completing the feeding period because of the more hardened condition of the wood, or occasionally will complete the larval development in a green peach. As the season advances, and additional broods of larvae appear, there is less feeding within the peach twigs and more feeding within the fruit, either through larvae feeding a short time within the twigs and then entering the fruit or else by the newly hatched larvae eating directly into the fruit.

In many of the infested areas there are four or five broods of larvae, and in some of the southern fruit districts as many as seven broods are known. The later broods are primarily responsible for the damage to apples, the eggs being laid on both the apple foliage and on the fruit itself.

The transfer of attack from the peach to the apple occurs usually after the peach crop has been harvested, thus leaving the insect without available food other than the apple. The insect apparently prefers apples (figs. 15 and 16) which are nearing maturity.

PREVENTIVE MEASURES

Unfortunately, there are as yet no satisfactory means of control known for the oriental fruit moth on any of its hosts. The infestation, more particularly with reference to the peach, may be

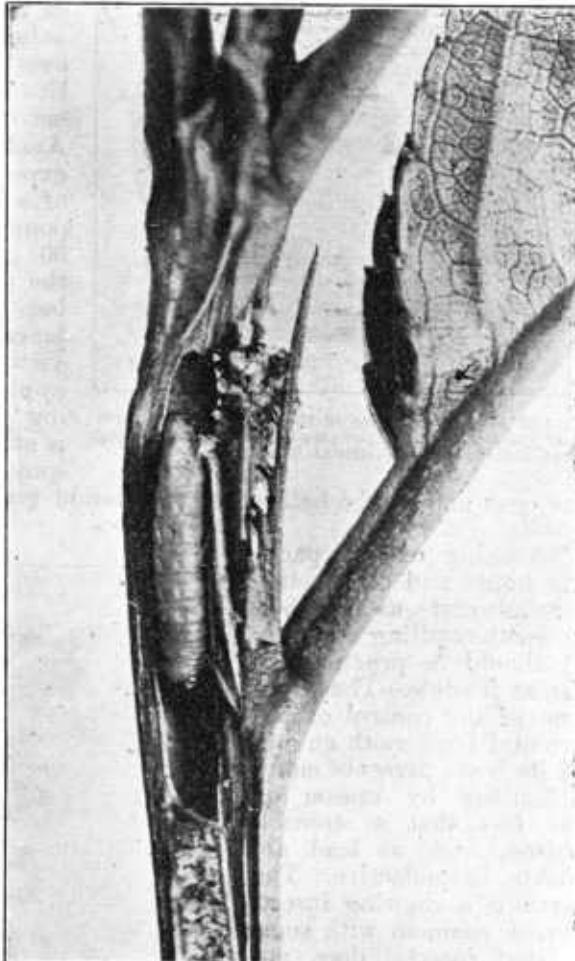


FIGURE 14.—Larva of the oriental fruit moth feeding in a peach twig. Enlarged three times

reduced somewhat by the use of bait pans containing a fermentable substance, as a water solution of molasses, by the use of paradichlorobenzene to kill the larvae cocooned at the base of peach trees and for the simultaneous control of the peach borer, and by plowing and disking to bury the insects cocooned on the soil. The economic value of the above measures for the sole reduction of the infestation has not been fully established.

Another measure, as yet experimental, is the use of a heavy lime spray (25 pounds of hydrated lime to 50 gallons of water) on the peach mechanically to bar the entrance of the larvae into the fruit. In view of the fact that the apple is nearing its ripening period at the time it is attacked, it appears that contact sprays to destroy



FIGURE 15.—Appearance on the surface of an apple of the injury under the skin caused by the feeding of a larva of the oriental fruit moth

the eggs and newly hatched larvae should give the most promising results.

Screening of the packing house and other sanitary measures, as described under the codling moth (p. 6) should be practiced as far as feasible. The problem of the control of the oriental fruit moth on any of its hosts presents many difficulties by reason of the fact that a stomach poison, such as lead arsenate, is ineffective. The larva is a chewing insect, but, in common with some related insects, does not swallow the skin of the fruit.

APPLE RED BUGS

Most orchardists are familiar with the manner in which the plum curculio (p. 7) and the rosy apple aphid (p. 25) dwarf and distort apples, but comparatively few fruit growers are well acquainted with the somewhat similar injuries caused by the so-called apple red bugs. There are two species, the darker one, *Heterocordylus*

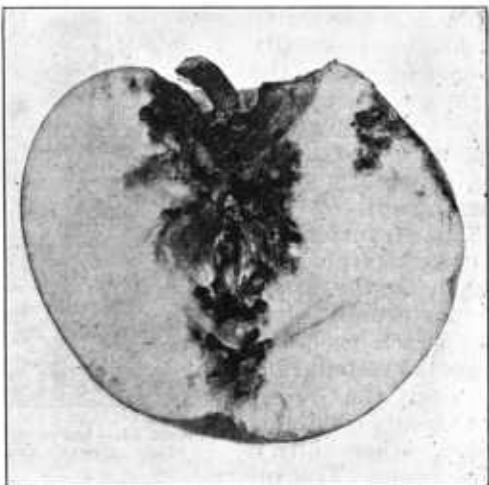


FIGURE 16.—Section of an apple showing the work of the oriental fruit moth

malinus Reut., known as the apple red bug, and *Lygidea mendax* Reut., which is lighter in color and is called the false apple red bug. These bugs have attracted considerable attention in certain localities within the last decade. It is usually not difficult to distinguish the work of the red bugs on the fruit from that of the plum eurelio, but red-bug injury may sometimes be more readily confused with the work of the rosy aphid, although, upon a careful examination of the trees, the aphid-curled leaves surrounding the fruit would soon reveal whether the latter insect was responsible. Fruit injured by red bugs shows distinct depressions or dimples, whereas that attacked by the rosy apple-aphid is more or less constricted and puckered about the calyx or blossom end. In many instances all three insects may be present in the same orchard, the combined attack causing the fruit to become very gnarled in appearance.

Shortly after hatching in the spring, the young red bugs or nymphs commence sucking out the juices of the new foliage, the injury causing the leaves to become somewhat distorted and covered with small reddish spots. Later, as the fruit develops, the insects turn their attention to it, stunting the growth as well as disfiguring it by the red-bug dimples. (Fig. 17.) Severely attacked fruit will frequently fall to the ground, but that which is the least injured will remain on the tree until harvest. Late in the season the injured leaves have a very ragged and crinkled appearance similar to that shown in Figure 18.

When abundant the apple red bugs become first-class orchard pests and frequently ruin the fruit for market

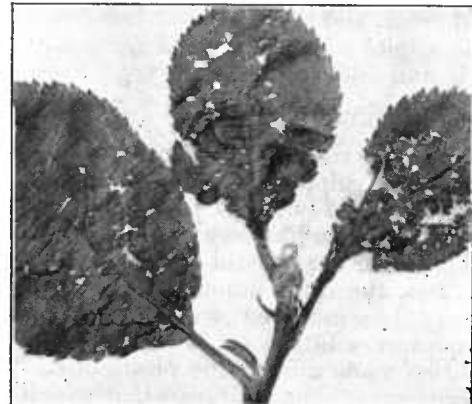


FIGURE 18.—Appearance of apple leaves as a result of red bug injury

purposes as quickly and thoroughly as any insect with which the fruit grower has to contend. Red bugs, it is believed, are native to this country and have been reported as occurring in the New England States and certain of the Middle Atlantic States, as well as in Michigan and Canada, and are undoubtedly present in many other Eastern States. While these insects are primarily apple pests, they are known to attack the pear and thorn apple.

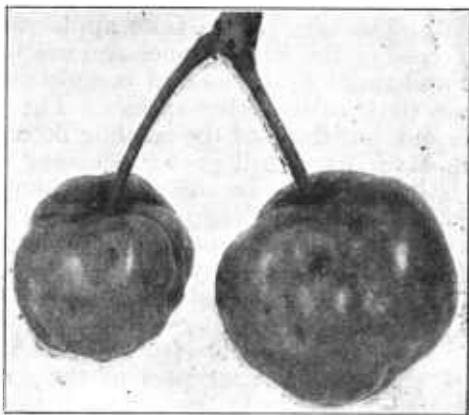


FIGURE 17.—Apples deformed by apple red bugs. Note the dimpled appearance

LIFE HISTORY AND HABITS

Both species of the red bugs pass the winter in the egg stage, but the eggs are deposited in somewhat different places and hatch at slightly different periods. The eggs of the apple red bug are inserted in the bark of the smaller branches and are difficult to locate. They are about one-sixteenth of an inch long, curved, and whitish, and they begin to hatch shortly after the leaves commence to unfold. The eggs of the false apple red bug are about the same size as those of the other species and are usually inserted in the lenticels of the small branches and commence to hatch about a week later than those of the other species. The young nymphs of each species are red, but those of the red bug become darker with age, approaching black when full grown, whereas those of the false red bug are relatively lighter in color throughout their nymphal period. The nymph of the red bug is about one-twentieth of an inch long when first hatched and approximately one-sixth of an inch long in the

last nymphal stage, while that of the false red bug is slightly smaller in all its nymphal stages. The feeding of the nymphs is confined to sucking of the juices from the foliage and fruit. During the latter part of the summer the insects reach maturity and deposit their eggs for the next generation, which do not hatch until the following spring. The adult apple red bug is about one-fourth of an inch in length, dark red to black in general color, with reddish wings which are usually black along the tips and have a black spot close to the outer edge. The false red bug (fig. 19) is about the same size as the other species, but is somewhat lighter in general color, and the head and front part

of the body are orange red. The adults of both species are active, and when disturbed are very agile and endeavor to hide from view.

CONTROL MEASURES

Since the red bugs are sucking insects, they can best be killed by means of contact insecticides. Nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) is commonly used in the proportion of one-half pint to 50 gallons of water in which about 2 pounds of soap has been dissolved. If it is desired to use a combination spray for the control of sucking and chewing insects and fungous diseases, the same amount of nicotine sulphate (omitting the soap) may be combined with lead arsenate and summer-strength lime-sulphur solution or Bordeaux mixture. The first application should be made during the pink cluster-bud stage and the second just after the petals have dropped, at which times commercial orchards are usually sprayed for other insect pests and fungous diseases. Attention should be called to the fact that the spraying should be done preferably on warm days when the nymphs are actively at work. It is also desirable to use a high-pressure, driving spray and quickly wet the entire tree, and, if feasible, have two operators spray simultaneously from opposite sides of the tree, so that none of the insects will have a chance to escape by dodging the spray solution.



FIGURE 19.—Adult of false apple red bug. Three times natural size

APPLE MAGGOT OR " RAILROAD WORM "

The apple maggot (*Rhagoletis pomonella* Walsh), a native insect, is commonly found in the New England States and Canada and also occurs as a pest in Michigan and other North Central States. When abundant, it presents a very serious problem and is likely to cause considerable injury, particularly to susceptible varieties. The work of this insect in its earlier larval stages is often very deceptive, and apples that appear sound externally are frequently infested with one or more maggots. As soon as the infested apples become mellow, however, the maggots develop rapidly and can be readily detected by the brownish tunnels which are often visible through the skin, especially with varieties having light or yellowish colored skins. (Fig. 20.) The larvae or maggots make winding burrows or tracks throughout the flesh of the fruit and often reduce it to a brown pomace-like consistency, rendering it absolutely worthless for market purposes. (Fig. 21.)



FIGURE 20.—Characteristic appearance of apple maggot tunnel as seen through skin of fruit

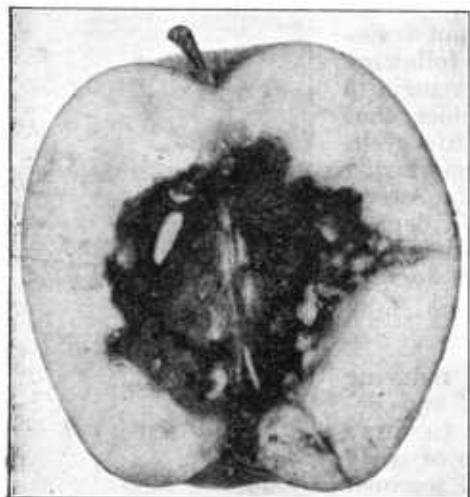


FIGURE 21.—Injured apple showing whitish apple maggot larva within

the apple, this insect has been reported on pear, plum, huckleberry, blueberry, cranberry, and mountain cranberry.

LIFE HISTORY AND HABITS

The apple maggot passes the winter in the pupal stage beneath the surface of the soil, the true pupa being developed within the puparium a few days after the latter is formed. The puparium (fig. 22) is at first light brown, later becoming darker, and is about three-sixteenths to one-fourth of an inch in length. The adults or flies first begin to issue during midsummer, usually in July, and a few weeks later the females deposit their eggs in the early varieties of apples, just beneath the skin of the fruit. The adult fly (fig. 23) is slightly smaller than the common house fly and is naturally somewhat sluggish unless disturbed, when it can dart quickly out of reach. The adult is shiny black in general color, the abdomen having four transverse white bands in the case of the female and three in the male, and the wings are marked with four irregular dark bands. The eggs are more or less yellowish white and average about one-thirtieth of an inch in length. They hatch in a few days and the resulting larvae immediately begin to feed on the flesh of the fruit.

After falling from the tree, the infested apples quickly mellow and shortly thereafter the full-grown larvae leave the fruit and enter the ground. The larva (fig. 21) is whitish to yellowish white and when full grown measures about three-eighths of an inch in length.

In southern New England there is a small partial second generation, but the majority of the first brood do not transform to the adult stage until the following summer, and a small percentage remain in the ground until the second summer, thus making for the latter a 2-year life cycle. The flies of the first brood emerge during midsummer, whereas those of the second brood issue during the fall and deposit their eggs in the different varieties of fruit when it reaches the proper stage of maturity.

CONTROL MEASURES

The most practical method of reducing injury, though not so effective and dependable as could be desired, is to spray the trees, beginning in late June or early July, depending on locality and seasonal conditions, with lead arsenate, using 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ pounds to each 50 gallons of water or fungicide. Two or three applications made at intervals of about two to three weeks will be required, according to the ripening period of the fruit. The flies are killed by lapping the poison from the foliage and fruit. The prompt picking up and destruction



FIGURE 22.—Puparium of apple maggot. Five times natural size.



FIGURE 23.—Apple maggot flies resting on fruit. Slightly enlarged.

of the dropped fruit shortly after it falls, or pasturing hogs in the orchard, will serve to destroy the maggots before they have an opportunity to enter the ground. Another means of reducing the numbers of the insect is to cultivate the orchard thoroughly during the early summer so as to kill the puparia before the flies begin to issue.

APPLE LEAF ROLLER

About the time the apple buds are beginning to open in the spring the caterpillars of the apple leaf roller (*Archips argyrospila* Walker)



FIGURE 24.—Leaf-roller injury to apple foliage



FIGURE 25.—Heavy silken web spun by larvae of the apple leaf roller on grapevine and arbor

begin to hatch and crawl to the buds, where they eat minute holes in the unexpanded leaves. They continue to feed upon the unfolding leaves, which they web together by means of silken strands. Later the caterpillars roll up a single leaf or several leaves (fig. 24) and also web together the blossom buds and feed upon them, often causing in this way considerable injury during the pre-blooming period. The caterpillars sometimes spin very heavy webs, as shown in Figure 25. After the apples have set, the caterpillars frequently neglect the foliage for the fruit, upon which they feed, protected

more or less by surrounding webbed-up leaves. They eat the apples voraciously, consuming irregular patches of the pulp (figs. 26 and 27), and have been known in instances of excessive abundance practically to destroy entire crops. They are especially destructive in portions of Colorado and New Mexico, where serious outbreaks have occurred, and occasionally in New York State.



FIGURE 26.—Fruit eaten by larvae of the apple leaf roller

At this time they are attracting considerable attention in the Pacific Northwest.

The apple leaf roller is a native species, widely distributed throughout the United States, and feeds upon a large variety of plants, as apple, pear, quince, plum, cherry, apricot, currant, raspberry, gooseberry, and a large number of trees and shrubs, as well as many other agricultural crops.



FIGURE 28.—Egg mass of apple leaf roller

LIFE HISTORY

During the winter season the apple leaf roller is in the egg stage (fig. 28), the eggs being laid in grayish masses of over 100 on the trunk, limbs, and branches of the trees. The full-grown caterpillar is about three-fourths of an inch in length, light green in color, with dark-brown to black head.

Upon reaching maturity the larva transforms to a brownish pupa, usually within a rolled-up leaf (fig. 29), and emerges in about 10 days as a moth (fig. 29), which deposits the overwintering eggs. The moth is small, with a wing expanse of



FIGURE 27.—Leaf-roller injuries to apples often callus over as corky depressions

about three-fourths of an inch, the fore wings being cinnamon brown with lighter markings.

CONTROL

As the result of considerable experimentation it has been found that the apple leaf roller is best controlled by destroying the eggs with a 4 per cent lubricating-oil emulsion or a good miscible oil, used at the strength recommended by the manufacturer, and applied during the dormant season, preferably just before the buds swell in the spring. In instances of severe infestations, an application of lead arsenate in the proportion of $1\frac{1}{2}$ pounds to 50 gallons of water or fungicide should be made as soon as the larvae begin hatching. There is also evidence that the addition of one-half pint of nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) to each 50 gallons of spray is effective in destroying many of the newly hatched larvae.



FIGURE 30.—Injury to apple foliage caused by rose chafer. Leaves have dried and curled as a result of the attack.

ish-brown beetles often skeletonize the foliage (figs. 30 and 31) and are particularly destructive to the fruit by eating out irregular holes, thus rendering it practically worthless. (Fig. 32.) This insect appears every now and then in large numbers, especially in poorly cared for, untilled orchards, or in orchards adjacent to sandy uncultivated land. Well-kept orchards, however, are sometimes seriously damaged, particularly in regions of light sandy soils, where the rose chafer is more or less a chronic pest.

It is found chiefly in the eastern part of the United States and as far west as Oklahoma and Colorado. The beetles are partial to



FIGURE 29.—Apple leaf-roller cocoon, pupal skin, and moth. Enlarged $2\frac{1}{2}$ times



FIGURE 31.—Work of rose chafer on apple leaf

the rose and grape, but will attack practically all kinds of vegetation, including fruit and shade trees, shrubs, vegetables, etc.

LIFE HISTORY



FIGURE 32.—Apple eaten by rose chafer

This insect passes the winter in the larval stage in an earthen cell beneath the surface of the soil. The full-grown larva is about three-fourths of an inch in length, yellowish white, with a light-brown head, and transforms in the spring to a light-brown pupa. (Figs. 33 and 34.) The beetles (fig. 35), which are light yellowish brown and about one-third of an inch in length, with long, ungainly, spiny legs, appear early in



FIGURE 33.—Pupa of rose chafer, side view. Enlarged two and one-half times



FIGURE 34.—Pupa of rose chafer, ventral view. Enlarged two and one-half times



FIGURE 35.—Rose-chafer beetles feeding on chestnut blossoms. Twice natural size

the summer and feed upon the foliage and fruit, as described. The females deposit very small, white oval eggs singly in the soil a few inches below the surface. The larvae hatch in a couple of weeks and feed on decaying vegetation and on succulent roots, preferring those of the grasses. They reach maturity in the fall and then construct their small, earthen cells in which they hibernate.

CONTROL MEASURES

It is very difficult to combat this pest successfully, particularly when it arrives in swarms, as is frequently the case. Although no spray materials that have given entire satisfaction have been dis-

covered, some measure of protection is afforded by one or two applications of lead arsenate in the proportion of 2 or 3 pounds to 50 gallons of Bordeaux mixture (4-4-50), the first application being made as soon as the earliest beetles appear. Some success has also been reported from the use of lead arsenate at the foregoing strength combined with 1 gallon of cheap-grade molasses to each 50 gallons of water. Self-boiled lime-sulphur mixture has been found quite effective against this insect in New Jersey and in addition would have some value as a fungicide.

In regions where this species is prevalent, the orchardist during the late spring should practice thorough cultivation, especially of sandy land, in which the insect thrives, so as to destroy the pupae previous to their transformation to the beetle stage. The maintenance of meadows on sandy soils, in the neighborhood of orchards and vineyards, is bad practice from the standpoint of rose-chafer control.

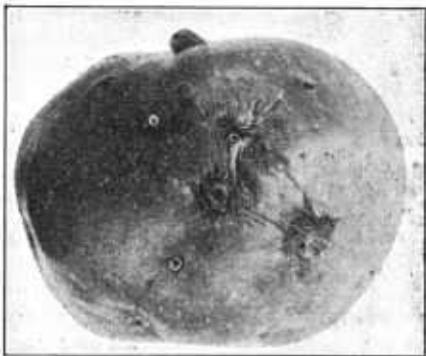


FIGURE 36.—Apple showing punctures made by apple curculio

APPLE CURCULIO

The apple curculio (*Tachypterus quadrifidus* Say) is a snout beetle which attacks the apple usually in association with the plum curculio (p. 6). It is not nearly so abundant as the latter, but

may occur in injurious numbers under conditions that are propitious to the plum curculio, as in weedy, uncultivated, unpruned orchards and in orchards adjacent to woodlands. It covers the same general territory as the plum curculio, being found in the States east of the Rocky Mountains. It has attracted most attention as an apple pest in the North Central States. Among the more important food plants of the apple curculio are apple, pear, quince, crab apple, haws, etc.

NATURE OF INJURY

Apples attacked by this beetle become dwarfed and gnarled (fig. 36) as they grow, and when severely punctured during

their early development many drop to the ground, where some become sufficiently mellow to permit the larvae to reach maturity. The egg-laying punctures of this insect differ from those of the plum curculio in that the female does not cut a crescent-shaped slit adjacent to the egg cavity. The apple curculio inserts its beak into the flesh of the fruit and, after enlarging the opening at the base, deposits an egg. It then plugs the hole with excrement (fig. 37).



FIGURE 37.—Feeding puncture (left) and plugged egg cavity (right) of the apple curculio. Enlarged

LIFE HISTORY

In general the life history and habits of this insect are similar to those of its near relative, the plum curculio, except that the pupae of the apple curculio (fig. 38) develop within the fallen fruit, whereas the pupae of the plum curculio are formed in the soil. The full-grown larva (fig. 39) is a dirty white, curved, wrinkled, footless grub, having a light-brown head. The small, reddish-brown adult or beetle (fig. 40), measuring about one-fourth of an inch in length and having four conspicuous humps on its wing covers, eats very sparingly of the skin of the fruit while making its feeding and egg-laying punctures, and hence poisoned sprays are of comparatively slight value in its control. The very minute, oval egg (fig. 41) is at first pearly white, but changes later to dull yellow.



FIGURE 38.—Live pupa of the apple curculio in natural position in apple. Enlarged four times

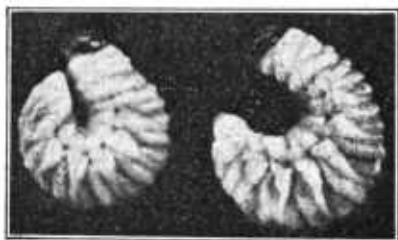


FIGURE 39.—Larvae of the apple curculio. Enlarged four times

CONTROL AND PREVENTION

As stated, poison sprays are of little avail, though they may perhaps have some slight value as a deterrent. It is therefore necessary to rely chiefly upon orchard sanitation, such as pruning to admit sunlight and the removal of favorable hibernating quarters such as trash and litter from within or near the orchard. If the fallen fruit infested with larvae or pupae is exposed to strong sunlight, the insects will die, and it is mainly for this reason that the apple curculio is better held in check in well pruned and cared for orchards. Where feasible, the prompt destruction of the fallen fruit or raking it out into the sunlight will help keep this pest in check.



FIGURE 40.—Apple curculio beetle resting on apple. Enlarged two and one-half times

holes in their young apples (fig. 42), but upon careful search are unable to find any trace of the destructive agent. In many instances injury of this character is due to one or more of the species of green fruit worms (*Xylina* spp.). It is fortunate that these caterpillars are not generally so abundant as some other fruit insects, since during their more or less sporadic outbreaks they often cause important injury. They not only attack the fruit, but previous to its formation the young larvae eat the buds and foliage. These insects,

GREEN FRUIT WORMS

Every now and then orchardists discover that some pest has eaten large



FIGURE 41.—Egg puncture and egg of apple curculio in wild crab apple. Enlarged six times

of which there are numerous species, are widely disseminated in the United States and feed on the apple, pear, and other common deciduous fruits, as well as on many forest trees.

LIFE HISTORY

The life histories of the several species are somewhat similar, differing chiefly in that certain of them pass the winter in the moth stage, whereas the others hibernate as pupae in the soil, either naked or inclosed in thin, silken cocoons. The moths are about three-fourths of an inch long when at rest and resemble one another closely, having in general an ashy-gray color. They deposit circular-shaped pinkish eggs with a diameter of about one-fiftieth of an inch, in the scars of branches, particularly in leaf scars, the eggs usually being laid previous to the appearance of the leaves. The young larvae hatch from these eggs and commence feeding upon the buds and expanding foliage and later attack the fruit as soon as it develops.

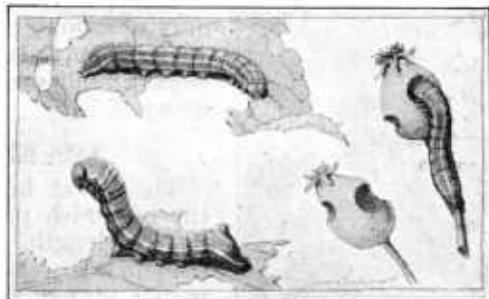


FIGURE 42.—Two species of green fruit worms feeding on foliage and young apples

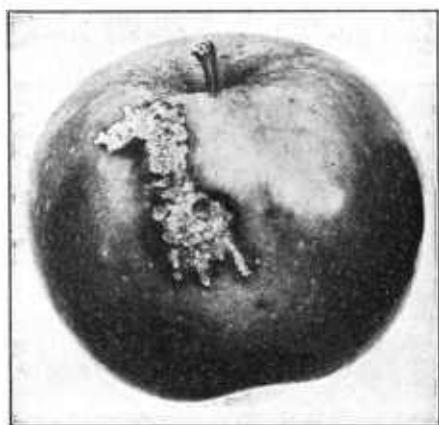


FIGURE 43.—Injury to apple by red-banded leaf roller

Upon reaching maturity, certain species of larvae are about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, yellowish green, with a slender, light-colored stripe down the middle of the back and a wider stripe along each side. At the conclusion of their feeding period they enter the soil and there construct the pupal cells, in which they transform successively to pupae and moths. The pupae are dark brown, a trifle over a half inch in length, and are to be found from 1 to 3 inches below the surface of the soil.

CONTROL

An early application of lead arsenate while the larvae are small is the most practical method of control. This application may be made during the pink cluster-bud stage, in the proportion of 2 pounds to 50 gallons of water or fungicide. If no spray is applied until the fruit has set, the worms will have developed to such a size that only very strong doses of the arsenical will be of value, and in any event much of the fruit will be damaged before the poison will take effect.

RED-BANDED LEAF ROLLER

During the harvest orchardists sometimes note apples injured by an insect that has eaten out small, shallow, somewhat irregular

patches just through the skin (fig. 43), particularly where a leaf has been in contact with the fruit. Injury of this nature may be due to the small, active caterpillar of the red-banded leaf roller (*Eulia velutinana* Walker), which is known to be widely distributed in the United States, occurring rather generally over the East and having also been reported from California and Texas. It is a very general feeder, attacking deciduous fruits, truck crops, flowers, shrubs, trees, etc., but only occasionally are its injuries to the apple very important, as during seasons of unusual abundance, or in orchards insufficiently sprayed.



FIGURE 44.—Egg mass of red-banded leaf roller. Four times natural size.

The female there is a relatively large dark red band. The full-grown larvae are greenish and about three-fourths of an inch long. Two or three generations are thought to occur each year in the vicinity of Washington and probably only two farther north.

The usual orchard spraying schedule as recommended for the codling moth (p. 5) should hold this insect well in check.

SERPENTINE FRUIT MINER

The larvae of a minute moth, the serpentine fruit miner (*Marmara pomonella* Busck), make long, narrow, winding mines or trails just under the skin of the apple (fig. 45), greatly disfiguring it and lessening its keeping qualities. Thus far this insect, which has been called the serpentine fruit miner, has not been sufficiently abundant to be the cause of much injury, though it is the subject of some inquiry because of the unusual appearance of the injured fruit. It is doubtless a native species and has been reported from Delaware, New York, Illinois, Oregon, and the Ozark Mountain regions. It apparently feeds only on the apple, though related species are miners on the twigs and branches of various plants. Little is known concerning its life history and habits, though it is supposed to winter in the larval stage. No experiments have been reported on

LIFE HISTORY AND CONTROL

The insect hibernates in the pupal stage, the brownish pupa being less than half an inch in length. The moth emerges early in the spring and deposits its yellowish eggs in flat masses (fig. 44) on the twigs of the apple and other food plants. The moth is brownish with a wing expanse of slightly over half an inch. Across the fore wing of

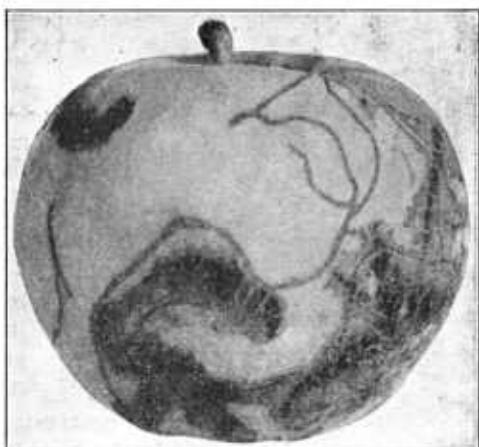


FIGURE 45.—Work of the serpentine fruit miner

the subject of some inquiry because of the unusual appearance of the injured fruit. It is doubtless a native species and has been reported from Delaware, New York, Illinois, Oregon, and the Ozark Mountain regions. It apparently feeds only on the apple, though related species are miners on the twigs and branches of various plants. Little is known concerning its life history and habits, though it is supposed to winter in the larval stage. No experiments have been reported on

methods of control of this species, as it has not been sufficiently important to necessitate careful study.

ROSY APPLE APHID

The rosy apple aphid (*Anuraphis rosae* Baker), a small, sucking insect, is unquestionably at the present time the most injurious of the plant lice attacking the foliage and fruit of the apple. It causes annually an important loss. This aphid curls the foliage, especially that surrounding the fruit (fig. 46), and also attacks the fruit stems and the fruit. The latter often become dwarfed and distorted, resulting in the so-called "aphis apples" (Fig. 47.) On young trees the aphids often feed upon the tender shoots, which frequently become twisted, sometimes making a complete loop.

The rosy apple aphid is believed to have been introduced from Europe and is now commonly found in practically all the apple districts of the United States. The only known food plants are the apple and its alternate summer hosts, the plantains.



FIGURE 46.—Work of rosy apple aphid on fruit and foliage of the apple

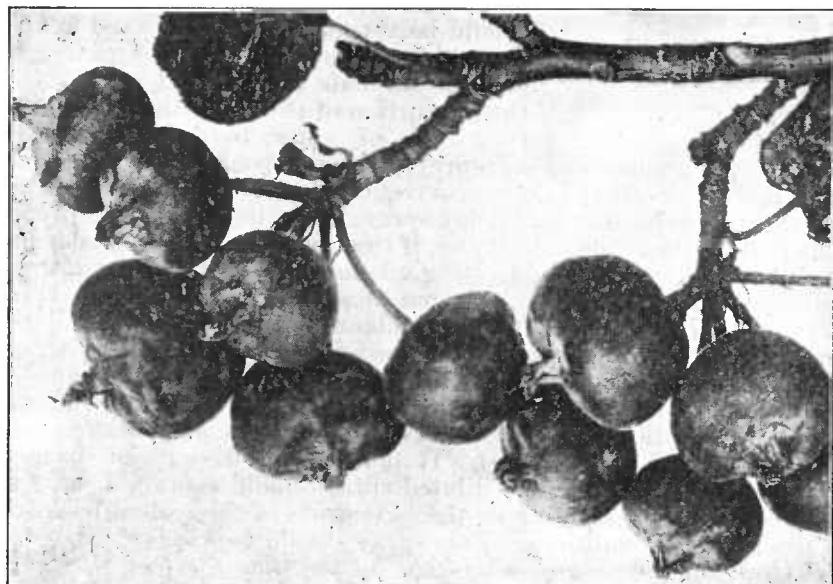


FIGURE 47.—Apples injured and stunted by rosy apple aphid. Commonly called "aphis apples"

LIFE HISTORY AND HABITS

The insect passes the winter in the egg stage on the tree, and the so-called stem mothers begin to hatch about the time the buds burst and immediately settle upon the unfolding leaves. Several generations of the rosy aphid are produced on the apple, and these feed upon the foliage and fruit as soon as it is formed, causing the leaves to become curled and deformed. Both winged and wingless individuals are produced, the former migrating when mature to the plantains. The wingless viviparous³ female is rosy brown, becoming purplish with age, and is covered with a powdery bloom. The spring migrant is brownish green with black head and thorax and transparent wings. The abdomen has a large black patch on the center of the back, and the appendages are partly black and partly yellowish brown. In the fall, migrants develop on the plantains and these return to the apple trees and produce sexual females, which deposit the overwintering eggs, usually on the twigs or in the axil of the buds and occasionally on the larger limbs or in the bark crevices. When first deposited the eggs are pale green, changing later to a glossy black.



FIGURE 48.—Green apple aphids on apple foliage

CONTROL MEASURES

On account of its leaf-curling habits the rosy apple aphid is difficult to control. Best results can be obtained if a spray application is made *in the spring period* when the aphids are clustered on the green tips of the swelling buds. Where this aphid is usually troublesome the trees should be very thoroughly sprayed at this time with a contact insecticide, preferably nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) in the proportion of three-eighths of a pint to 50 gallons of water, to which should be

added about 2 pounds of soap previously dissolved in hot water. If the San Jose or other scale insects requiring a dormant treatment are present, the orchardist may delay spraying for them until the proper time to treat the apple aphids and, if the nicotine sulphate is added to the lime-sulphur spray, lubricating-oil emulsion, or miscible oil, there will be no necessity for making separate applications against scale insects and apple aphids. This combination treatment, popularly known as the "delayed dormant," consists of three-eighths of a pint of nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) and about 6½ gallons of concentrated lime-sulphur (32° Baumé), with sufficient water to make a total of 50 gallons. *Soap should not be added to any solution containing lime-sulphur solution.* If lubricating-oil emulsion is used instead of lime-sulphur, the diluted spray should contain from 2 to 4 per cent of oil, depending on the seriousness of the scale infestation and other local conditions. This spray should be *applied when the bud tips show green and completed by the time the leaf tips have*

³ Viviparous females are those that bring forth young alive, the eggs developing and hatching within the body of the parent.

begun to separate. Orchardists with considerable acreage to treat, and planning to make the delayed-dormant application, should be sure to have adequate equipment to accomplish the work before the foliage expands to any appreciable extent.

GREEN APPLE APHID

The green apple aphid (*Aphis pomi* DeG.) hatches from overwintering eggs in the spring about the same time as the rosy aphid, but unlike the latter feeds during the entire season upon the apple. It is often injurious to bearing orchards, but is much more serious as a nursery pest and in young orchards, sucking sap from the tender shoots and leaves (fig. 48), the latter becoming much curled. The attack materially checks the growth, especially during periods of drought. This insect secretes a large amount of honeydew on which ants feed; these often are quite abundant and are mistaken for the real depredator. A black fungus grows on the honeydew, giving the foliage and shoots a soot-like appearance. The green apple aphid is widely disseminated throughout the United States, feeding principally on the apple, but it has also been recorded upon the pear, wild crab, and white thorn.

LIFE HISTORY

The insect passes the winter in the egg stage, the eggs being laid on twigs and water sprouts. They are yellowish green when freshly laid, later changing to a glossy black. The so-called stem mothers hatch from these eggs about the time the buds begin to burst. From 9 to 17 generations are produced during the season, following which the sexual individuals appear and deposit the overwintering eggs. The wingless viviparous female is of a uniform green color, darkening with age, frequently having a yellowish head. The winged viviparous female is pea green, with head and thorax shiny black, wings transparent, and appendages more or less completely black.

CONTROL MEASURES

Thorough spraying of trees *as the buds are bursting in the spring* (delayed-dormant treatment) as described for the rosy apple aphid (p. 25) will be of much value in controlling this species. By midsummer, however, the aphids may become abundant again and in the case of young orchards do considerable damage in checking tree growth. It is a question of judgment on the part of the orchardist whether or not to spray, in view of the only partial effectiveness of treatments due to the curled and rolled-up leaves. If the injury is pronounced, spraying with the 40 per cent nicotine sulphate in soapy water is probably advisable, care being taken to apply the liquid thoroughly and with force.

APPLE-GRAIN APHID

Fruit growers are often unnecessarily alarmed early in the spring upon finding the swollen apple buds covered with small, light-green-



FIGURE 49.—Individuals of a pple-grain aphid clustered on swollen a pple bud. Enlarged 3 times

ish aphids (fig. 49) awaiting an opportunity to feed upon the first succulent leaf tissue that appears. Later, when the tree is in bloom, the same aphids may appear in hordes in the blossoms, often 15 or 20 individuals to a single flower. This is usually the apple-grain aphid, which, even when abundant, is believed to cause no important injury, since it leaves the apple shortly after the blooming period and migrates to grains and grasses, on which it passes the summer.



FIGURE 50.—Eggs of apple-grain aphid on twig. Enlarged 4 times

LIFE HISTORY

The apple-grain aphid (*Rhopalosiphum prunifoliae* Fitch), or "apple bud aphid," as it is sometimes called, is quite widely distributed throughout the United States. It passes the winter in the egg stage. The eggs (fig. 50), which are laid in crevices of the bark or on the twigs, are pale green when first deposited, later changing to a glossy black. Some of the eggs hatch prematurely during warm days in winter and are destroyed, but the majority do not hatch until the buds commence to swell.

Several generations are produced by the time the apple blooms have fallen, at which time the aphids migrate to grains and grasses, as described. The wingless viviparous female is pale green, darkening with age, and on its back are commonly found three longitudinal stripes of darker green. The appendages are marked with black near the tips. The winged viviparous female is greenish, with a glossy black head and thorax and with each side of abdomen marked with a row of black dots and a small black patch near the base of each cornicle or honey tube. The wings are transparent, and the appendages are more or less completely black. In the fall migrants develop on the grains, and these return to the apple and produce the egg-laying females. After mating with the winged males the sexual females deposit their over-wintering eggs.

If the apple-grain aphid is the only species present, it will cause but slight injury to the apple, and special control measures will not be required. In many instances, however, some of the other common and more injurious apple aphids are at work, in which event spray-



FIGURE 51.—Apple leaf showing mottled appearance due to rose leaf hopper

ing with nicotine sulphate, as recommended for the rosy apple aphid (p. 26), will be desirable and will kill the plant lice present, regardless of the species.

ROSE LEAF HOPPER

During midsummer and early fall the lower apple foliage is often more or less stippled or mottled with white. (Fig. 51.) An examination of such leaves will usually reveal on the lower surface many small, active insects, the so-called rose leaf hopper, *Empoas rosae* L. (Fig. 52.) During recent years injuries by this pest have attracted increasing attention in certain commercial orchards. Leaves seriously infested by this hopper are unable to function properly and in extreme cases fall to the ground, interfering with the proper development of fruit buds and fruit. The leaves are not curled by this species, such injury being caused by the potato leaf hopper (p. 30).

The rose leaf hopper is believed to have been introduced from Europe, perhaps on nursery stock, and is now widely distributed throughout the United States. Among its food plants, in addition to the rose and apple, are our common deciduous fruits; the grape, raspberry, currant, gooseberry, and blackberry; the elm, oak, etc. Rosaceous plants, however, are preferred.

LIFE HISTORY

The rose leaf hopper passes the winter in the egg stage. The winter eggs are deposited beneath the bark of the apple and other plants, especially the rose where available, producing small, blisterlike spots, slightly crescentic in outline. The egg is elongate, about one-fortieth of an inch in length, and when laid is transparent, changing toward the close of its incubation to yellowish white.

The young or nymphs hatch in the spring, usually from three to four weeks earlier than the apple leaf hopper, and immediately begin their attack upon the foliage. In the early summer they become full grown, at which time they are yellowish green and about one-eighth of an inch in length. After feeding on the foliage for several weeks the adults deposit eggs in the veins of the leaves. The second generation hatches from these eggs and the nymphs continue to feed upon the foliage. It is the work of this brood which as a rule is most conspicuous during late summer. The second brood of adults deposits the overwintering eggs in the bark of the apple, rose, etc., as previously mentioned.

CONTROL

For the control of the rose leaf hopper nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) should be used in the proportion of 1 part to 1,200 or 1,500 parts of water. If other grades of nicotine compounds are employed, care should be taken that the diluted spray has an equivalent strength, namely, about 0.03 per cent of actual nicotine. Fish oil or laundry soap should be added at the rate of 2 to 3 pounds to each 50 gallons of water. The spraying should be directed against the first-brood nymphs on the under surface of the lower leaves,

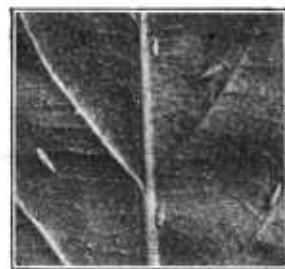


FIGURE 52.—Rose leaf hoppers on apple leaf. About natural size

which require careful and thorough spraying. One application should so reduce the "hoppers" that further spraying will not be necessary. The treatment should be made when the first-brood nymphs are present in maximum numbers, and preferably in the first to third stages, which as a rule will be three to four weeks earlier than the first spray for the potato leaf hopper. If spraying for the first brood has been neglected and the second brood requires treatment, use nicotine sulphate as described above, timing the application when the nymphs are present in maximum numbers.

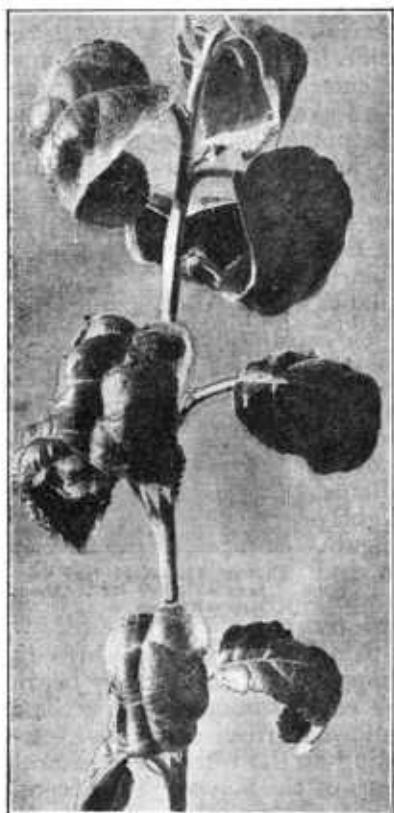


FIGURE 53.—Apple leaves curled by potato leaf hopper

in length, and on the thorax are two pearly white, longitudinal lines, connected by a transverse line forming the letter H. As the weather becomes warm in the spring the adults leave their hibernating quarters and make their way to the underside of the terminal leaves, where they commence feeding. Later the eggs are inserted beneath the lower epidermis of the leaf and in due time give rise to the nymphs. The latter are principally responsible for the curled and deformed condition of the foliage.

Two generations are produced each year in the Middle Atlantic States, the adults of the last one hibernating as described. The eggs are very minute, cylindrical, about one-thirtieth of an inch in length,

POTATO LEAF HOPPER

The potato leaf hopper, sometimes referred to as the apple leaf hopper (*Empoasca fabae* Harris) much resembles in size and general appearance the rose leaf hopper (p. 29), though the injuries it causes are quite different. On apple, this form attacks principally the tender terminal leaves, causing them to become reduced in size, curled and misshapen. (Fig. 53.) The effect of feeding by the insects eventually causes the tips of the leaves to dry up and turn brown. This injury is often important on young orchard trees and on nursery stock. The potato leaf hopper is widely disseminated throughout the United States, attacking numerous plants, including most deciduous fruits, as well as shade trees, grasses, cereals, truck crops, and the like.

LIFE HISTORY

The insect hibernates in the adult stage (fig. 54) beneath fallen leaves or other convenient shelter in the orchard or near by. It is pale green, about one-eighth of an inch

transparent when first deposited, changing later to a pale yellow. In size the nymphs vary according to age and in general are yellowish green. The adults are very active and when disturbed can readily dart from one limb to another or fly to near-by trees.

CONTROL

The potato leaf hopper, like the rose leaf hopper, can best be controlled by a nicotine spray, as nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) in the proportion of 1 part to 1,200 or 1,500 parts of soapy water. The spraying should be done against the first-brood nymphs, special attention being given to covering the lower surface of the leaves, and the application made when the insects are mostly in the third nymphal stage. This can be determined by frequent examinations of the insects on the leaves. Since lime-sulphur is frequently used as a summer spray, the nicotine sulphate may be combined with it, *omitting, however, the soap*. Lead arsenate, if desired, may be added to this combination and thus at the same time effect the control of chewing insects as well as of fungous diseases.

BUD MOTH

The little, brownish, overwintering caterpillars of the bud moth (*Tmetocera ocellana* Schiff) are about half-grown when the apple buds begin to swell in the spring and are ready to gnaw into the buds when these open. Later they feed upon the expanding foliage (fig. 55, B), but the injury is usually greatest to fruit buds, which are frequently devoured to such an extent as to destroy the prospects of a crop. As mentioned later, injury of a different nature is caused during the summer and early fall by the new generation of larvae, but this damage is not so serious as that produced by the overwintering caterpillars. Nursery stock is sometimes seriously injured, and the pest often is accidentally distributed through the sale of the infested trees.

The bud moth was introduced into this country from Europe and easily ranks as the most important of the apple bud-infesting insects. It is essentially a northern species, being found chiefly in the upper tier of States from coast to coast, but is perhaps most numerous in the New England States, where it frequently causes a considerable loss, particularly in unsprayed or poorly cared for orchards. The apple is its principal host, but it will also attack pear, quince, peach, cherry, plum, prune, blackberry, laurel, oak, and other plants.

LIFE HISTORY AND HABITS

The bud moth, as mentioned, passes the winter as a half-grown, dark-brown, black-headed larva, within a small silken case, known as a hibernaculum. (Fig. 55, A.) This is composed of silk, rein-

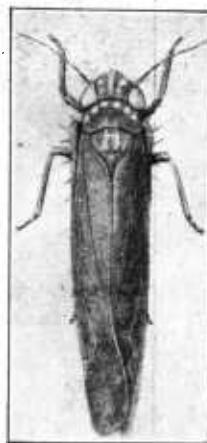


FIGURE 54.—Adult potato leaf hopper. Enlarged 8 times.

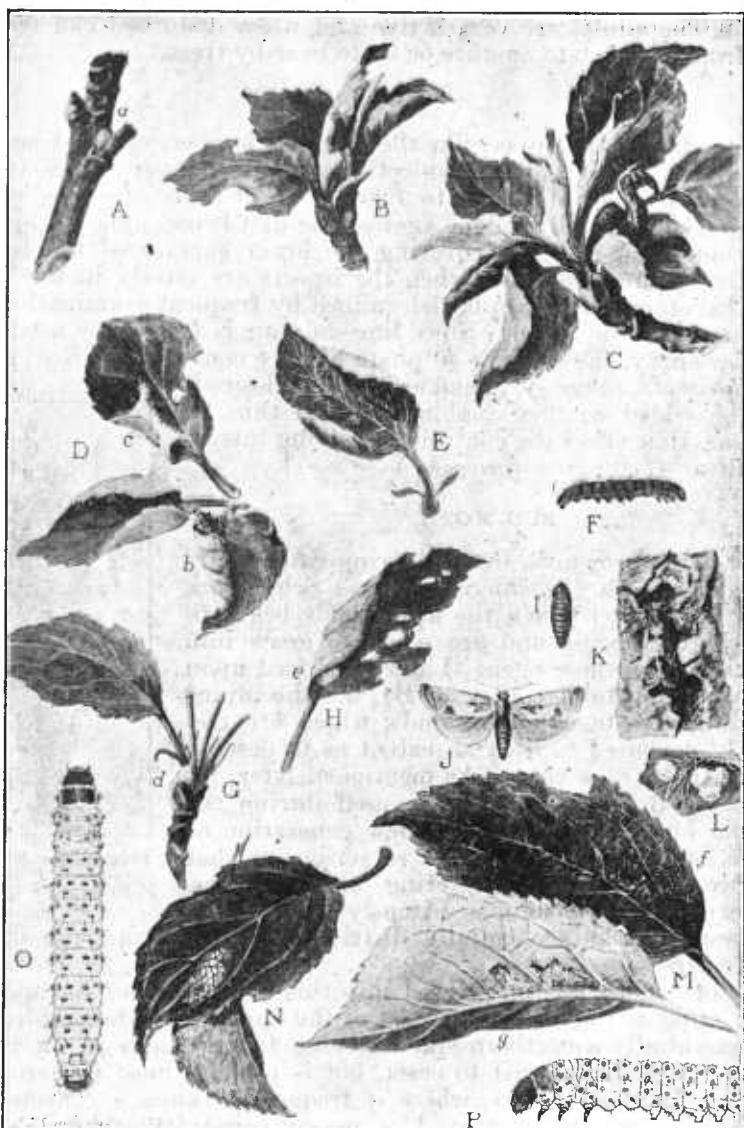


FIGURE 55.—Bud moth; A, Twig with winter cocoon or hibernaculum in crotch at *a*; B, spring feeding of larva in expanding leaves; C, later stage of infested leaves, showing dead, rolled leaves; D, larval nests in rolled leaves, a deserted one at *b* and a new one at *c*; E, feeding areas and larva on a leaf; F, mature larva; G, H, pupal cocoons at *d* and *e*; I, pupa; J, K, bud moth adults; L, eggs on underside of leaf, enlarged; M, two leaves showing summer feeding of larva; *f*, appearance on upper surface; *g*, web-covered feeding area on under surface in which is partly concealed a tube of silk and frass; N, a common condition where two leaves are webbed together, one leaf being dead and detached from its base; O, P, diagrams of larva showing arrangement of tubercles and hairs.

forced by small bits of bark or leaves, and is attached to an apple twig. As soon as the bud scales commence to separate in the spring the larvae begin feeding and continue to work on the expanding foliage and flower parts, usually webbing these more or less together by means of silken strands so as to form a protective covering. Some of the caterpillars continue their burrows through the buds into the tender twig growth. In early summer the caterpillars reach maturity, when they are reddish brown, with a black head, and are about half an inch in length. Subsequently they transform to pupae within a curled leaf or several leaves sewed together. The pupa (fig. 55, I) is brownish and about five-sixteenths of an inch in length. The small ashy-gray moths (fig. 55, J and K), having whitish bands across the forewings and a wing expanse of slightly more than half an inch, appear shortly afterwards and deposit very small, oval, practically transparent eggs (fig. 55, L), which hatch in a week or so following their deposition. The new generation of larvae protect themselves with a covering of silk as they feed upon the foliage and often eat out shallow excavations through the skin of the fruit (fig. 56), particularly where it comes in contact with a leaf. These small holes may sometimes be confused with the so-called "stings" (p. 2) made by the late broods of the codling moth. As fall approaches the larva builds a hibernaculum, in which it spends the winter.

CONTROL MEASURES

Although it is somewhat difficult to effect immediate control in orchards where this pest is numerous, thorough spraying, regularly practiced, will soon bring satisfactory results. The first application should be made as soon as the flower buds appear, and this should be followed by another application when the buds are in the pink cluster-bud stage, using in each instance 2 pounds of lead arsenate to 50 gallons of water or fungicide. After the pest has been well reduced in numbers, the regular orchard sprays, as applied for apple scab, the plum curculio, and the codling moth, will ordinarily hold it in check. Where spraying is not so generally practiced, as in nurseries or young orchards, it will often be feasible to examine the trees and remove the infested leaves or else crush with the hands the insects within the nests.

LESSER BUD MOTH

Although the lesser bud moth (*Recurvaria nanella* Hübn.) is reported as an apple pest of minor importance, it is quite possible that its depredations are more extensive than generally recognized, since it may be responsible for a part of the injury usually attributed to the bud moth (p. 31). The overwintering larvae bore into the buds as they begin to swell in the spring (fig. 57) and often, like the bud moth, destroy the flowering parts, thereby reducing the size of the fruit crop. As the leaves begin to expand, the larvae tie them together with silken strands and feed within the inclosure thus



FIGURE 56.—Holes in apple made by bud moth larvae during summer

formed. Another type of injury of much less importance is caused by the newly hatched larvae mining in the leaves during midsummer. (Fig. 58.)

The lesser bud moth is of European origin and was probably accidentally introduced into this country on nursery stock. Its present distribution covers the Northeastern and North Central States. The pear is reported as its favorite food plant, but it has also been found on the apple, peach, plum, cherry, wild plum, and hawthorn.



FIGURE 57.—Apple bud infested with lesser bud-moth larvae. Three times natural size.

At the conclusion of the spring-feeding period, the full-grown larvae, which are about three-eighths of an inch in length and of a brown to light-green color, crawl to the tree trunk, where they spin cocoons beneath the bark scales or in crevices. The larvae soon transform to pupae which measure about three-sixteenths of an inch in length and vary in color, changing at first from green to greenish brown, and later to brown. The small moths (fig. 59), which have a wing expanse of about half an inch, are streaked in appearance and have conspicuous black and white banded legs. They deposit their small, yellowish eggs on the underside of the foliage, and the larvae, upon hatching, eat through the lower epidermis of the leaf and mine therein until the approach of cold weather, when they desert their mines and spin their winter hibernacula.



FIGURE 58.—Work of lesser bud-moth larvae on apple leaf.



FIGURE 59.—Adult of the lesser bud moth resting on bark of pear tree. Enlarged six times.

CONTROL

The lesser bud moth can be well controlled by spraying the dormant trees with concentrated lime-sulphur solution, testing 32° Baumé, in the proportion of from 6 to 6½ gallons, diluted with

sufficient water to make a total of 50 gallons—a strength also effective against the San Jose scale, blister mite, etc. If the orchardist does not wish to make the foregoing dormant treatment, two applications of lead arsenate of 1 pound to 50 gallons of water or fungicide may be substituted. *The first of these applications* should be made when the buds are swelling and the second as soon as the cluster buds have separated, commonly known as the pink cluster-bud stage.

JAPANESE BEETLE

The Japanese beetle (*Popillia japonica* Newman) (fig. 60) was first discovered in the United States at Riverton, N. J., in 1916 and has since spread to several of the near-by States. The beetle is an omnivorous feeder, attacking the apple, peach, and grape, as well as many other species of fruits. Included in the general list of over 200 host plants are a wide variety of cultivated crops, shade trees, and numerous weeds.



FIGURE 60.—The Japanese beetle. About twice natural size

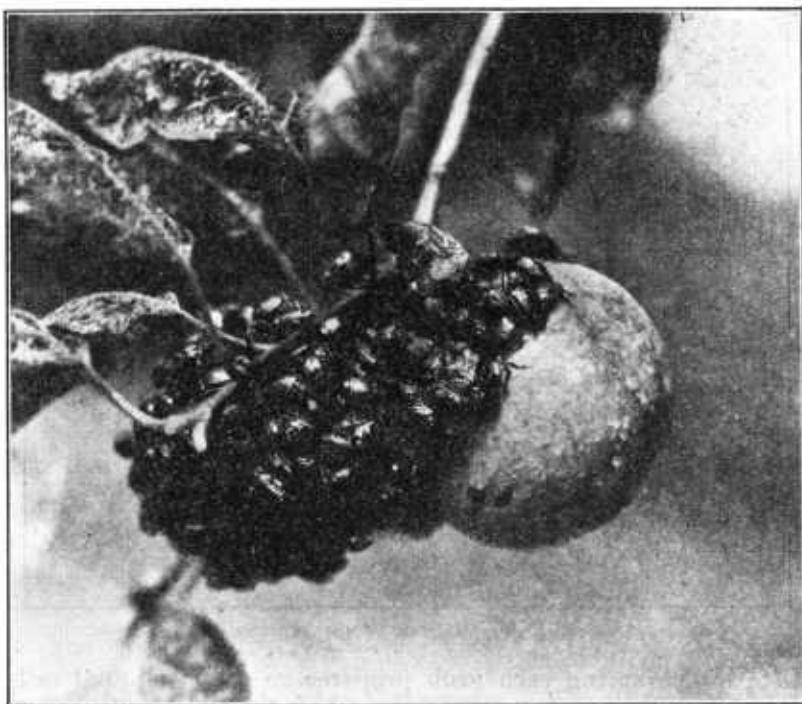


FIGURE 61.—Japanese beetles feeding on peaches

The principal injury to the apple is caused by the beetle's skeletonizing the leaves and feeding upon the fruit itself, especially as it is nearing maturity. Large areas of the skin and the flesh beneath are frequently consumed by the beetles, especially when congregated on the fruit in numbers. (Fig. 61.) The beetle measures about

three-eighths of an inch in length and is a bright metallic green except that the greater part of the wing covers is a coppery brown.

LIFE HISTORY

The winter is passed in a dormant condition in the larval or grub stage in the soil. As the soil becomes warmer in the spring the grubs resume feeding on soil particles, on decayed organic matter, and on the fibrous roots of plants. (Fig. 62.)



FIGURE 62.—Life-history diagram of the Japanese beetle stages

Late in the spring each grub prepares an earthen pupal cell in which it soon changes to a pupa, after which the adult beetle appears. The peak of beetle emergence in New Jersey occurs during July and August. Beetles are to be found, however, in June and September also, their relative abundance being largely governed by weather conditions. As previously mentioned, the beetles feed on a wide variety of cultivated and wild plants. They deposit their eggs in

the soil. The grubs or larvae which hatch from the eggs feed on whatever food is available in the soil until cold weather approaches. There is thus only one generation of the Japanese beetle a year in the area now infested.

CONTROL MEASURES

The most satisfactory protection for late varieties of apples is obtained by *spraying in the latter part of June*, or whenever the beetles first become noticeable,⁴ with lead arsenate 3 pounds, and flour 2 pounds in 50 gallons of water. The flour should be mixed dry with the lead arsenate and this mixture worked into a smooth paste by adding sufficient water before it is poured into the spray tank for further dilution. One application of spray may be sufficient, provided the beetle infestation is not too heavy and the spray is not removed by rains. *A second application*, however, will be required if it should be found that the first is not giving adequate protection.

Early apples may be protected with the same spray recommended for the late varieties, but in view of their season of ripening, it will be necessary before marketing the fruit to remove any arsenical residue in excess of the tolerance permitted by the Federal Food and Drug Administration. If it is not feasible to provide suitable cleansing apparatus, a spray for repelling the beetle, consisting of 6 pounds of freshly slaked stone lime to 50 gallons of water, may be substituted for the lead arsenate-flour spray.

The lime spray, though neither so effective nor so adhesive as the lead arsenate-flour spray, is nontoxic, and most of it may be removed by wiping if its presence mars the appearance of the fruit for marketing purposes.

The use of lead-oleate coated lead arsenate is not recommended as a spray for edible products.

NEW YORK WEEVIL

The large snout beetle known as the New York weevil (*Ithyicerus noveboracensis* Först.) is more formidable in appearance than the plum and apple curculios, but is of less importance. It seldom attracts much attention, except locally during seasons of unusual abundance. While known to occur in many fruit districts, its injuries have been confined mainly to parts of the South and to the Mississippi Valley. The New York weevil feeds upon a wide variety of host plants, the more important including our common deciduous tree fruits, white and burr oak, hickory, etc.

This weevil attacks the buds early in the spring and frequently eats into the twigs and tender shoots and cuts off the leaves. Occasionally young trees and nursery stock are quite seriously injured.

Although the life history of this beetle has not been carefully investigated, it is known that the adults are active early in the spring and attack the buds as soon as they start to push out. The adult is a large snout beetle, about five-eighths of an inch in length and of an

⁴The time of the application will vary with the locality and the seasonal conditions.

ashy gray color, with small, light dots on the wing covers. (Fig. 63.) The eggs are deposited on burr oak and certain other trees and the resulting larvae live in the twigs. The larva is footless and light yellow, with yellowish-brown head.

As a means of combating this insect, jarring similar to that done against the plum curculio is sometimes practiced. On small trees hand picking is advantageous if the number of trees is not too great. Probably a thorough application of Bordeaux mixture and lead arsenate made as soon as the beetles appear would serve to repel or kill them before they seriously injure the buds.

RED-LEGGED FLEA BEETLE

The red-legged flea beetle (*Crepidodera rufipes* L.) every now and then appears suddenly in such numbers as to cause much alarm among orchardists who have set out young fruit trees on newly cleared locust land or in the vicinity of recently cut-over locust timber. While these sporadic attacks are often of a serious nature locally, they are fortunately of quite irregular occurrence. The beetles attack the buds early in the spring, resulting at times in the death of the tree. They also feed later upon the foliage and blossoms.

The red-legged flea beetle is found in Europe and the United States and is known to have a large number of host plants, the more important of which include the apple and other deciduous tree fruits, many small fruits, and such trees as locust, hazel, dogwood, etc.

FIGURE 63.—The New York weevil
Slightly enlarged

The life history of this insect has not been fully investigated, but it is known that it hibernates in the adult stage. The beetles are about one-tenth of an inch in length, oblong-oval, with wing covers usually of a polished bright blue and bright red legs. The larvae are supposed to live on the roots of locust.

The buds of fruit trees should be sprayed with lead arsenate in the proportion of 1½ to 2 pounds to 50 gallons of water or fungicide, and the application repeated if the beetles continue their attack. Bordeaux mixture (4-4-50) serves more or less as a repellent, and this, combined with lead arsenate, is as satisfactory a spray as anything known at the present time. As a supplementary control measure, the beetles should be jarred from the trees on sheets, as is sometimes done in the case of the plum curculio.

APPLE FLEA BEETLES

Altica foliacea LeConte; *Altica punctipennis* LeConte

The so-called apple flea beetles, in common with other flea beetles, have strongly developed hind legs with which they are able to jump somewhat after the manner of fleas. Generally speaking, the two species here treated are not particularly destructive to bearing apple orchards, but young orchards and nurseries may sometimes be attacked so severely that special remedial measures are desirable. The overwintering beetles begin their attack upon the foliage in late spring to early summer, and when abundant eat many small holes through the leaves,

giving them a perforated appearance. The larvae appear during mid-summer and feed upon the soft leaf tissue, skeletonizing foliage.

The life histories of these insects have not been studied in detail. They pass the winter as bright, metallic-green beetles, about one-sixteenth of an inch long. The eggs are yellowish, more or less elongate in outline, and are about one-twenty-fifth of an inch in length. The full-grown larvae are generally black, about one-fourth of an inch long, and when grown pupate in fragile earthen cells just below the surface of the ground. Later the beetles issue and hibernate, there being but one generation annually.

Since flea beetles are chewing insects, they may be controlled by an application of lead arsenate of the usual strength in water or fungicide, as lime-sulphur solution or Bordeaux mixture. The application should be made as soon as the beetles are discovered. Orchards and nurseries properly sprayed for other chewing insects will seldom require special treatment for this pest.



FIGURE 64.—Work of the spring cankerworm

SPRING CANKERWORM

Cankerworms, also known as measuring worms, loopers, or spanworms, have long been known as defoliators of apple and certain shade trees, and during cankerworm years may cause very important injury, especially in orchards not usually plowed or sprayed. In common with many other insects, cankerworms have their periods of abundance, usually lasting four or five years, after which they practically disappear, due to the combined effects of parasites, climate, etc. The damage is done by the larvae feeding upon the foliage, which they consume, except the midribs and larger veins. (Fig. 64.) By the close of the feeding period, orchards may be so defoliated that from a distance they appear brown and scorched as if swept by fire. (Fig. 65.) Cankerworms are



FIGURE 65.—Apple tree defoliated by spring cankerworm

most often troublesome in neglected orchards and on unsprayed trees growing in sod around the home, and when once established under such conditions may defoliate the trees several years in succession.

The spring cankerworm (*Paleacrita vernata* Peck), is native to North America, occurring in Canada and the northern part of the United States, ranging southward through the Mississippi Valley and westward to Kansas and Texas. It is present also in California.

Its principal host plants are the apple and elm, although it also feeds on cherry, plum, prune, apricot, linden, etc.



FIGURE 66.—Two views of pupa of spring cankerworm. Enlarged four times

in any convenient crevice. The females (fig. 67) are grayish, with a dark stripe on the back, and measure about five-sixteenths of an inch in length. The male moth has dark-gray fore wings, which are crossed with three dark bands. On the back of the abdomen of both the male and female are several rows of reddish spines by which this species may be distinguished from the fall cankerworms. The eggs (fig. 68) are oval, considerably less than one thirty-second of an inch in length, and yellowish green, sometimes showing a purplish iridescence. The young larvae hatch about the time the foliage of the apple commences to appear and immediately start feeding. The growth is completed by late spring, when the larvae usually lower themselves to the ground by means of a silken thread. The full-grown larva (fig. 69) is slender, about an inch long, varying in color from yellowish brown to black. There are often three broken yellow stripes above the spiracles, a narrow yellow stripe below the spiracles, and a broad greenish-yellow stripe along the lower surface, bordered on each side with black. There are only two pairs of prolegs, and the larvae loop as they crawl, after the manner of all measuring worms.

LIFE HISTORY

The winter is passed in the pupal stage (fig. 66) just below the surface of the ground. If the weather is warm the moths will sometimes emerge as early as February, but as a rule emergence does not take place until early spring. The wings of the female moths are very much dwarfed and are useless for flying, and this necessitates their crawling up the trees in order to deposit their eggs. These are laid in patches along the trunk or larger limbs or



FIGURE 67.—Female moths of the spring cankerworm. Enlarged three times

CONTROL AND PREVENTIVE MEASURES

As already stated, orchards properly sprayed for the codling moth and leaf-eating insects are rarely if ever injured by cankerworms. Both the spring and fall cankerworms are controlled by thorough spraying of the trees with lead arsenate at the usual strength, though if the caterpillars are half grown or larger when the application is made, the quantity of arsenate should be increased. Trees may also be protected by means of bands of sticky material or bands of cotton batting (see pp. 94, 95) placed around the trunk a month or two previous to the time the buds usually begin to swell. These barriers will keep the females from crawling up the trees to deposit eggs and will, if properly applied, prevent the young larvae that may hatch below the bands from ascending the trees. Thorough plowing and cultivation of the soil after the larvae have pupated in late spring will be effective in destroying many of the insects while in this helpless stage.



FIGURE 68.—Eggs of spring cankerworm on bark. Enlarged three and one-half times

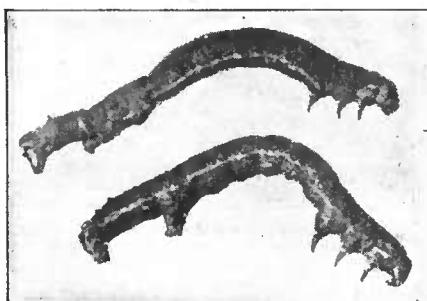


FIGURE 69.—Larvae of the spring cankerworm. Two times natural size

loopers, measuring worms, or spanworms, attack the foliage of the apple in the manner described for the spring cankerworm, and the two species, along with certain other loopers, may often be present on the trees at the same time. The fall cankerworm is a more general feeder than the spring form, attacking, in addition to the principal pome and stone fruits (fig. 70), the hackberry, the common hickory, linden, walnut, butternut, etc. It occurs generally over the northeastern States and in Canada, extending westward to the Central States. It is also present in California, attacking various deciduous fruits.

LIFE HISTORY

The life history of the present species differs somewhat from that of the spring cankerworm in that the winter is passed chiefly in the



FIGURE 70.—Injury to cherry by fall cankerworm

egg stage, the eggs being deposited usually in the fall, though some eggs are laid in the spring by moths that emerge at this time. The dark-gray

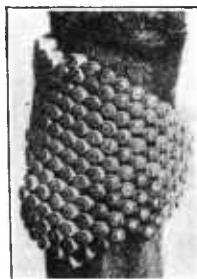


FIGURE 71.—Egg mass of the fall cankerworm. Enlarged five times.

the spring cankerworm and have about the same wing expanse. Neither sex, however, has the two rows of spines on the back of the abdomen, as has the preceding species.

CONTROL

The remedial measures indicated for the control of the spring cankerworm will be effective in combating the fall form. If bands of sticky material or cotton (see pp. 94, 95) are used, they

eggs, which are arranged neatly side by side in clusters of 100 to 400 upon apple twigs, as shown in Figure 71, resemble tiny flowerpots. When full grown the larva is about 1 inch in length, slender, with three pairs of prolegs, which serve readily to distinguish it from the spring cankerworm, which has only two pairs. The larvae (fig. 72) are usually dark greenish or blackish, the majority showing on each side a prominent, longitudinal stripe of light lemon yellow. Like the moth of the spring form, females of this species are wingless and must crawl up the trees in order to deposit eggs on the twigs. (Fig. 73.) The female moths (fig. 74) are dark gray and about half an inch long. The males (fig. 75) resemble in size those of



FIGURE 72.—Fall cankerworm larva. Two and one-half times natural size.

should be applied in October and kept in good order by frequent examination until the danger of injury is over in the spring.

EASTERN TENT CATERPILLAR

The eastern tent caterpillar (*Malacosoma americana* Fab.), or apple-tree tent caterpillar, constructs the unsightly tents or webs which are familiar objects in the spring in neglected orchards and in trees along fences, roadways, streams, etc. During caterpillar years considerable damage frequently results from the defoliation of young orchards and trees not regularly sprayed. It is a native insect and occurs westward to the Rocky Mountains. On the other closely related forms. The favorite host plant of the tent caterpillar appears to be wild cherry,



FIGURE 73.—Female moth of the fall cankerworm depositing eggs. Enlarged three and one-half times.

Pacific slope it is replaced by

though it feeds freely upon apple, peach, plum, and other deciduous fruits, and upon various shade and forest trees.

LIFE HISTORY

The tent caterpillar passes the winter in the egg stage. The eggs are laid on twigs in clusters of from 300 to 400 (fig. 76), each egg mass being covered with a waterproof material. An individual egg is somewhat thimble-shaped and is about one twenty-fifth of an inch in length. The eggs hatch as the apple buds begin to open or somewhat earlier, and the larvae are ready to attack the new leaves as soon as they appear. Almost immediately after hatching the colony begins to form its silken nest or tent, usually in the crotch of the tree limbs, sometimes at or near the trunk of the tree. As the larvae grow, the tent is enlarged from time to time to accommodate the needs of the colony. (Fig. 77.) When full grown, the caterpillars make their way to sheltered places for spinning their cocoons, in which the pupal stage

is passed. The full-grown larva (fig. 78) is about 2 inches long, deep black, with a white stripe along the back and blue and white spots on each side. The caterpillars are partly covered with yellowish hairs. The brownish pupa (fig. 79), which measures about three-fourths of an inch in length, is inclosed in a silken cocoon (fig. 79), loosely woven on the outside but tightly woven within, and, when freshly made, is more or less covered with a yellowish powder. The moths issue during midsummer and soon thereafter deposit their characteristic overwintering egg masses. The moths are reddish brown, the fore wings having two transverse, oblique, whitish stripes. (Fig. 80.)

PREVENTION AND CONTROL

Apple orchards regularly sprayed for other insects will rarely be seriously troubled by this insect. The lead arsenate used in the pink cluster-bud spray will destroy the caterpillars before they have occasioned much damage. Whenever it is desirable to spray for the tent caterpillars alone, lead arsenate is advised in water or fungicide, using the poison in the proportion of 1 pound to 50 gallons for the young caterpillars, but doubling the amount of poison in case the larvae are one-



FIGURE 75.—Male moth of the fall cankerworm. Enlarged two and one-half times

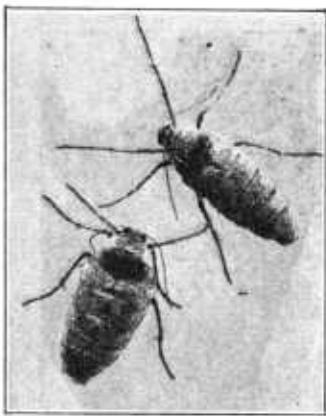


FIGURE 74.—Female moths of the fall cankerworm. Two times natural size



FIGURE 76.—Two egg masses of the eastern tent caterpillar

third grown or over. It is quite practicable to destroy the nests and caterpillars by hand where these are not too numerous. During the work of pruning lookout should be kept for the egg masses and these removed and destroyed. The destruction of wild-cherry trees in the vicinity of orchards will aid in keeping the pest reduced.



FIGURE 77.—Larvae and nest of eastern tent caterpillar in wild cherry tree

in the nest the larvae feed upon the leaves, as well as any fruit which may be inclosed. This insect is not ordinarily an important apple pest, except in epidemic years in neglected orchards or in young orchards to which arsenical sprays are not as a rule applied. It is a native species, widely distributed over the United States, and attacks a large variety of food plants,

as the apple, pear, peach, and various nut and shade trees. It is rather chronically injurious to shade trees.

The fall webworm passes the winter in the pupal stage concealed beneath trash on the ground or just under the surface of the soil or sometimes in the crevices of the bark. The dark-brown pupa (fig. 82) is inclosed in a flimsy silken cocoon, into which hairs from the caterpillar are woven. The first brood of moths issue irregularly, but some larval webs are to be found within a few weeks after the foliage has pushed out. In the Middle and

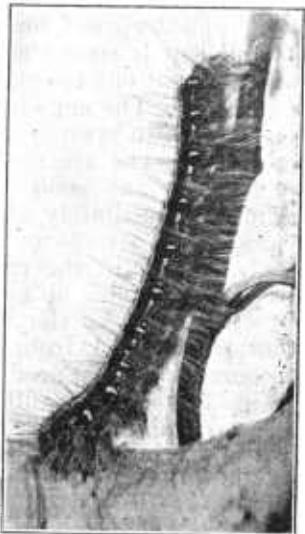


FIGURE 78.—Larva of eastern tent caterpillar. Slightly enlarged

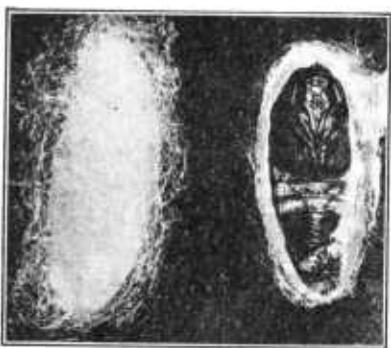


FIGURE 79.—Cocoon (left), and pupa (right) of eastern tent caterpillar. Slightly enlarged

Southern States a second brood appears in late summer or fall. The moths (fig. 83) have a wing expanse of about $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches and are variable in color, some being pure white, others white spotted with black and brown dots. The eggs (fig. 84), which are light yellow and glob-

ular, are deposited on both the upper and lower surfaces of the leaves in flat clusters usually containing a few hundred eggs, and are more or less covered with white hairs from the body of the female. Upon hatching, the caterpillars attack the terminal leaves of the branch and soon inclose a section within a silken web, enlarging it as more food is required. Feeding is continued within this web until the larvae are nearly grown, when they frequently feed outside the nest at night.

A full-grown caterpillar (fig. 85) is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches long, with a broad, dark band along the back, the body being covered with long, whitish hairs, though there is considerable variation in their color and appearance.

FIGURE 80.—Eastern tent caterpillar moths: Male at left and female at right. About three-fourths natural size

This species yields readily to arsenicals of the strength usually employed and will require no attention in apple orchards receiving the proper spray applications for other chewing insects.

RED-HUMPED APPLE CATERPILLAR

Ordinarily the red-humped apple caterpillar (*Schizura concinna* S. and A.) is one of the minor insect enemies of the apple, the injury consisting in the defoliation of individual branches or occasionally of young

FIGURE 81.—Nest or web of the fall webworm

trees. The caterpillars feed in colonies at the ends of branches and are met with from midsummer until early fall, according to latitude. It is a native species, quite generally distributed throughout the United States and, in addition to the apple, feeds upon the pear, cherry, plum, and prune, as well as certain other fruit, nut, and shade trees. As a rule it winters in the larval stage within a loosely constructed cocoon in some sheltered place on or near the ground. (Fig. 86.) In the late spring or early summer the larvae transform to pupae, from which moths issue somewhat later. The parent moth is dark brown (fig. 86, B), with a wing expanse of about $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches. The fore wings are grayish near the tips, merging into dark brown near the body. The whitish, globular eggs (fig. 86, C) are deposited side by side in a cluster of 50 to 100 on the underside of the leaf. The young larvae upon hatching are gregarious; they feed upon the lower leaf surface and eat out the soft parenchyma. (Fig. 86, D.) As they become older they feed along the edges of the leaf (fig. 86, E), consuming the leaf more or less completely. Upon attaining their full growth the larvae construct cocoons for the winter in the North,

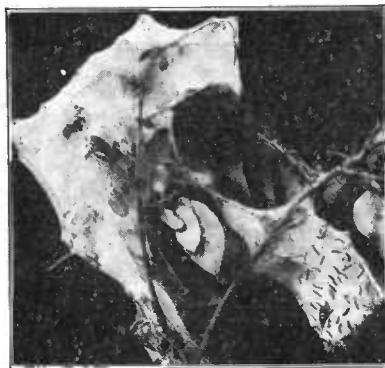
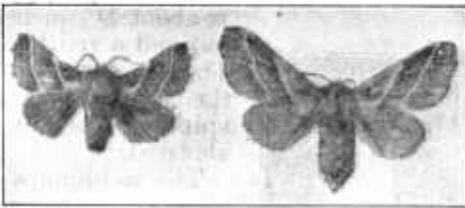


FIGURE 82.—
Fall web-
worm pupa.
One and one-
half times
natural
size

whereas in the South they spin very light cocoons in leaves or other convenient places, pupate, and finally transform to the adult stage, giving rise to a second generation. A full-grown larva (fig. 86, E) is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches in length, with the head coral red and a red hump on the fourth body segment. There are black and yellowish-white lines along the body, and on the back are two rows of blackish spines. When at rest the rear end of the body is elevated.

The red-humped apple caterpillar will readily yield to lead arsenate sprayed upon the infested trees. Where this insect has been more or less troublesome in past years, a lookout should be kept for its first appearance and the arsenical applied promptly. Scattered colonies, if not too numerous, can often be economically destroyed by hand.



FIGURE 83.—Moth of fall webworm depositing eggs. Twice natural size

**YELLOW-NECKED
APPLE CATER-
PILLAR**

The yellow-necked apple caterpillar (*Datana ministra* Drury) is very similar in its habits and method of feeding to the red-humped apple caterpillar, the injury as a rule being confined to individual limbs, although sometimes entire trees are defoliated, principally in young orchards. Ordinarily it does very little damage, except during occasional years. It is native to America and attracts attention principally in the Central and Northern States. It feeds upon the apple, pear, cherry, quince, and many nut and shade trees.

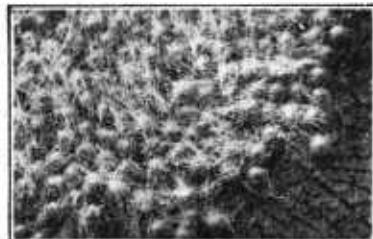


FIGURE 84.—Eggs of fall webworm. Enlarged four times

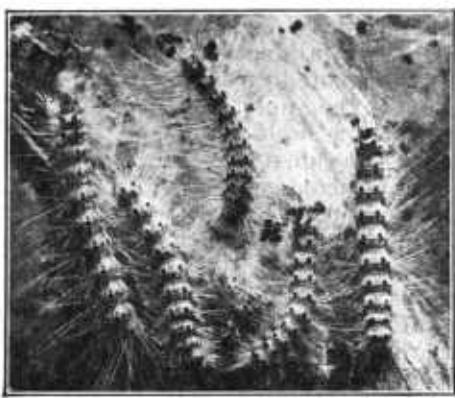


FIGURE 85.—Fall webworm caterpillars. Slightly enlarged

dense colonies, at first on the lower surface of the foliage, but later on the edges of the leaves. If disturbed, they are likely to cease feeding and erect their heads and rear ends in a characteristic atti-

The insect passes the winter in the ground near the surface of the soil as a naked, brownish pupa slightly less than an inch in length. The moths appear in midsummer and deposit from 25 to 100 eggs in flat masses (fig. 87) on the underside of the leaves. The adult, which has a wing expanse of about 2 inches, is reddish brown, with the fore wings crossed by three or four dark lines. The larvae feed in

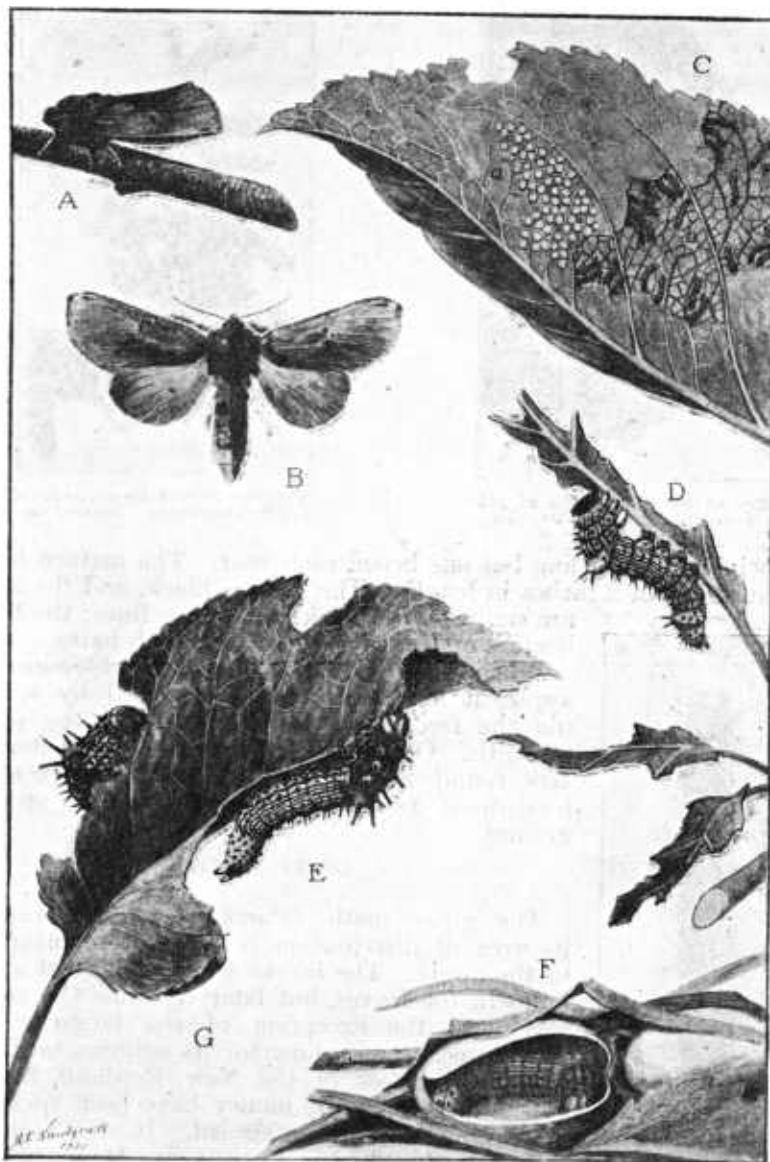


FIGURE 86.—Red-humped apple caterpillar: A, Moth at rest on twig; B, moth with wings spread; C, apple leaf showing unhatched eggs at *a*, and young caterpillars feeding on lower epidermis at *b*; D, caterpillar nearly full grown; E, full-grown caterpillar; F, cocoons on ground amongst grass and dead leaves, one cocoon cut open to show caterpillar within

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tude, as shown in Figure 88. Upon reaching their full growth the caterpillars leave the trees and enter the soil, where they pupate for

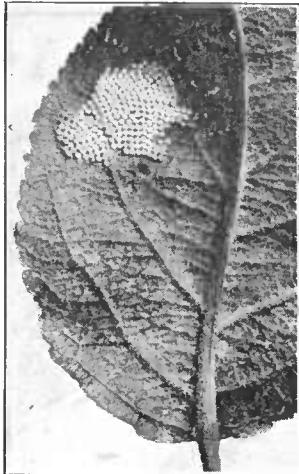


FIGURE 87.—Egg mass of yellow-necked apple caterpillar

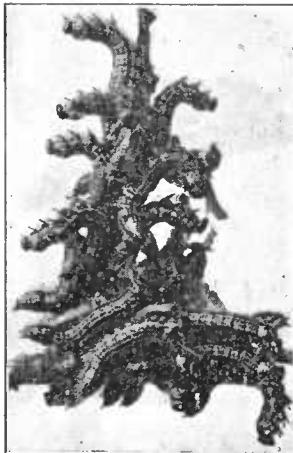


FIGURE 88.—Yellow-necked apple caterpillars. Natural size

the winter, there being but one brood each year. The mature larva measures about 2 inches in length. The head is black, and the sides are striped with black and yellow lines; the body is more or less covered with whitish hairs.

When this species becomes troublesome on apple, it may be readily controlled by spraying the trees with lead arsenate at the usual strength. Occasional colonies of the caterpillars found in the orchard can be shaken or brushed from the trees and killed on the ground.

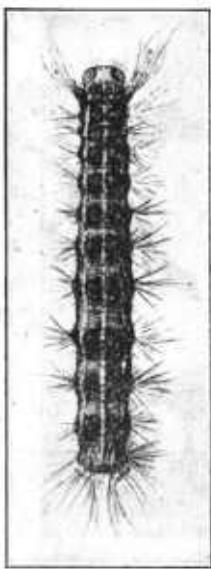


FIGURE 89.—Gipsy moth caterpillar. Natural size

including various deciduous fruits, but, as mentioned, are especially destructive to forest and shade trees.

GIPSY MOTH

The gipsy moth (*Porteretria dispar* L.) in its area of distribution is often quite injurious to the apple. The larvae when young eat small holes in the leaves, but later consume the entire leaf with the exception of the larger veins. This insect is notorious for its injuries to shade and forest trees in the New England States, where large sums of money have been spent in restricting its further spread. It was accidentally introduced from Europe into Massachusetts about 1869. It is still confined to the New England States, though an outbreak found in New Jersey has been practically eradicated. The caterpillars attack a very large variety of plants,

LIFE HISTORY

During the winter season the gipsy moth is in the egg stage, the eggs being laid in more or less flat masses, containing from 400 to 500 eggs and covered by hairs from the body of the female. These masses are placed frequently at the base of trees, under stone walls, or on wooden fences, the moth apparently not being particular, except to find a somewhat protected location. The caterpillars are hatching in the spring by the time the apple buds begin to show green, and as the leaves expand these are fed upon until the caterpillars complete their growth. The mature larva is about 2 inches in length, with characteristic markings on the back which consist of five pairs of blue tubercles followed by six pairs that are reddish; between these markings is a thin yellow stripe. The body is well clothed with black hairs. (Fig. 89.) The pupa measures about an inch in length and is dark brown. The moths emerge during midsummer and deposit the overwintering eggs, there being but one brood of caterpillars each year. The extended wings of the male moth measure about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches from tip to tip, are light brown, and crossed

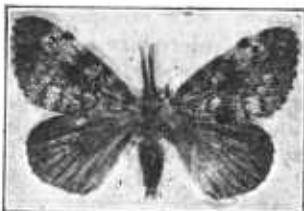


FIGURE 90.—Male gipsy moth.
Natural size



FIGURE 91.—Female gipsy moth.
Natural size

with four irregular, dark lines. (Fig. 90.) The female (fig. 91) is somewhat larger and is unable to fly. Its wings are whitish with dark lines on the fore wings as in the male moth.

CONTROL

Orchardists can reduce the infestation to a considerable extent by examining their trees and surrounding fences for the egg masses during the winter and treating them with crude coal-tar creosote, to which should be added a small quantity of lampblack to serve as a marker. The trees should also be sprayed as soon as the leaves are large enough to take an application of poison. Since the gipsy-moth caterpillars are quite resistant to arsenical poisons, it is necessary to use 3 or 4 pounds of lead arsenate to each 50 gallons of water or fungicide, and this strength is effective only during the very early season when the larvae are young.

BROWN-TAIL MOTH

Early in the spring, as the leaves are pushing out, the small larvae of the brown-tail moth (*Nygma phaeorrhoea* Don.) emerge from their winter nests and attack the foliage. Somewhat later in the spring they also feed upon the blossoms. (Fig. 92.) When abundant they defoliate the trees more or less completely. The insect

occurs rather generally over the New England States, and its range extends into Canada. While not now especially destructive, it has in recent years been a pest of importance and may reappear in destructive numbers at any time.

The brown-tail moth is a native of Europe and is thought to have gained entrance into this country about 1890, or a few years later. The apple is one of its favorite food plants, as is also the pear, but it is pre-eminently a defoliator of shade and forest trees, except conifers.



FIGURE 92.—Brown-tail moth caterpillars devouring apple foliage and blossoms

proach of warm weather the caterpillars emerge from their winter nests to attack the developing foliage. They continue feeding until early summer, when they become full grown, and spin very light cocoons, frequently in a leaf or amongst trash near the trees. The full-grown-larva is about $1\frac{1}{2}$

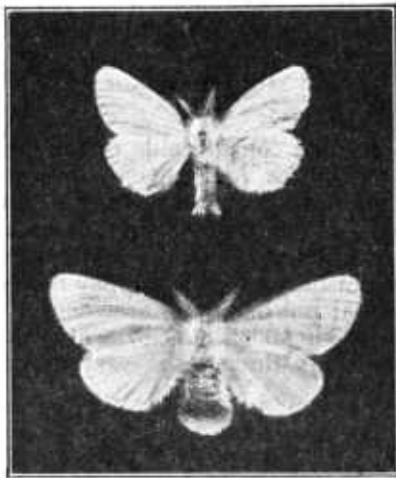


FIGURE 94.—Brown-tail moth: Male above, female below. About natural size

inches long and dark brown to black. The body is covered with reddish-brown hairs and on each side is a row of white tufts, with two bright-red tubercles near the posterior end of the body. The larvae transform into dark-brown pupae about three-quarters of an inch in length, and later the adults or moths appear. The adults (fig. 94) have white wings which expand about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The abdomen is tipped with a tuft of brown hairs, more noticeable in the female than in the male, which gives the insect its common name. The globular eggs are deposited on the under-

LIFE HISTORY

The insects winter as very small caterpillars in tough silken nests composed of partly skeletonized leaves, securely webbed together. (Fig. 93.) With the approach of warm weather the caterpillars emerge from their winter nests to attack the developing foliage. They continue feeding until early summer, when they become full

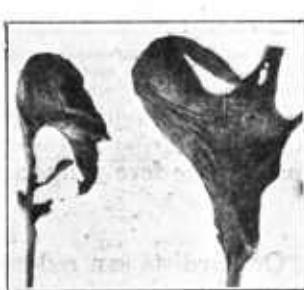


FIGURE 93.—Two nests of the brown-tail moth

inches long and dark brown to black. The body is covered with reddish-brown hairs and on each side is a row of white tufts, with two bright-red tubercles near the posterior end of the body. The larvae transform into dark-brown pupae about three-quarters of an inch in length, and later the adults or moths appear. The adults (fig. 94) have white wings which expand about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The abdomen is tipped with a tuft of brown hairs, more noticeable in the female than in the male, which gives the insect its common name. The globular eggs are deposited on the under-

side of the terminal leaves, in clusters of from 100 to 300 eggs, the entire mass being covered with brownish hairs from the abdomen of the female. The eggs hatch in the latter part of summer and the young larvae feed upon leaves for a time and later construct their winter nests on the terminal twigs, often quite conspicuous during winter. (Fig. 95.) In Figure 96 is shown a nest attached to apples.

CONTROL

There are two principal means of protecting trees from the ravages of the brown-tail moth. The first is to spray the trees, just as the larvae are hatching, with lead arsenate in the proportion of 2 pounds to each 50 gallons of water or fungicide. Particular attention should be given to applying the poison to the tips of all



FIGURE 96.—Nest of brown-tail moth caterpillars attached to apples

siderable importance by reason of its injuries to the apple, and at these times it is usually abundant on shade trees in the same area. The injury consists in its eating the foliage, though it has been known to do material damage by eating holes in the green fruit.



FIGURE 95.—Nests of the brown-tail moth on apple tree

the branches, since the caterpillars feed on the terminal leaves. The second or supplementary means of control is to remove and burn during the winter all of the brown-tail nests found in the trees. If the caterpillars' nests have not been destroyed during the winter or by the time new foliage appears, the lead arsenate treatment should be made promptly as described.

WHITE-MARKED TUSSOCK MOTH

During some years the white-marked tussock moth (*Hemerocampa leucostigma* S. and A.) is of con-

(Fig. 97.) It is a native species occurring quite generally throughout the eastern portions of the United States and in Canada. The caterpillars feed upon a very large list of plants, including the apple, pear, and other deciduous fruits, as well as a large number of shade trees. They are likely to be met with any year in orchards, but only occasionally do they cause serious damage.

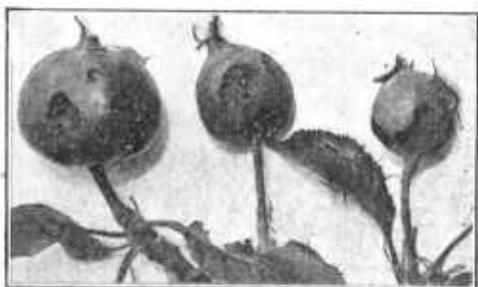


FIGURE 97.—Caterpillars of the white-marked tussock moth feeding upon the foliage and fruit of the apple

An individual egg is roundish and light colored, and the masses are placed upon the trunk, in crotches of limbs, and other places, usually upon the cocoon from which the female moth has emerged. The

female moth (fig. 98) is light gray, with mere rudiments of wings, whereas the male has well-developed wings and is grayish with the fore wings crossed by irregular dark bands, and a white spot near the tip of the outer edge. (Fig. 99.) The larvae hatch in the spring af-



FIGURE 98.—Female white-marked tussock moth depositing egg mass on silken cocoon. Twice natural size



FIGURE 99.—Male white-marked tussock moth. Twice natural size

ter the foliage has appeared and with a few weeks of feeding attain full growth and seek a place upon the tree or on some near-by object to spin their cocoons preparatory to pupation. The larvae are rather ornate, and when full grown are about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. (Fig. 100.)

The head is coral red, and two protuberances of the same color occur on the rear end of the body. There are also two conspicuous black plumes extending from the fore end and one from the rear end of the body, on which are also found four pale-yellowish tufts of hair. The pupae are brownish and are inclosed in the cocoon made of silk and hairs. Toward the northern part of its distribution there is only one brood of larvae each year, but in the Central and more southern States, depending upon the latitude, there may be as many as three broods.

There are two other species of tussock moths likely to be found in orchards in certain regions. The antique tussock moth (*Notolophus antiqua* L.), of European origin, is present in the New England States and adjacent Canada, its general range of distribution, however, extending westward to the Pacific. The California tussock moth (*Hemerocampa vetusta* Boisd.) occurs only in California apparently, where it has done important injury to apples, cherries, and certain forest or shade trees. Both species can be controlled by the means recommended for the white-marked tussock moth.

CONTROL

The caterpillar of the tussock moth is quite resistant to arsenicals, but can be controlled while young with a spray of lead arsenate in the proportion of 2 pounds to 50 gallons of water or fungicide. When the caterpillars are very abundant, much relief can be secured by searching out and creosoting the egg masses as for the gipsy moth (p. 49), or these can be removed and destroyed by burning.



FIGURE 100.—White-marked tussock moth caterpillars. Slightly enlarged

(p. 49), or these can be removed and destroyed by burning.

HICKORY TIGER MOTH

The hickory tiger moth (*Halisidota caryae* Harris) is another insect which sometimes attracts attention in neglected orchards and young orchards not regularly sprayed with arsenicals. The caterpillars are gregarious (fig. 101), and if not checked in the course of their feeding may cause considerable defoliation of the trees. This insect is well known in the New England States and is often found as far west as Montana and Missouri, attacking the apple, pear, quince, cherry, hickory, walnut, and many other trees.

LIFE HISTORY

The hickory tiger moth hibernates in the pupal stage, usually in trash on the ground. Early in the summer the moths emerge and soon deposit their eggs on the foliage in clusters containing from less than 100 to about 400. The roundish eggs are about one thirty-fifth of an inch in diameter, bluish white when fresh, but later becoming darker. The moths (fig. 102) have rather conspicuous markings, the fore wings being mottled with small brownish dots, with three more or less distinct rows of white dots, and having an expanse of approximately 2 inches. Upon hatching, the larvae feed at first upon the surface of the foliage and later consume the entire leaf except the larger veins. The full-grown larva (fig. 103) is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches long and is covered with black and white



FIGURE 101.—Young caterpillars of the hickory tiger moth. Natural size.

hairs. The cocoons (fig. 104) are made among the leaves or trash on the ground. There is only one generation of the caterpillars each year, and they are not likely to be troublesome, except during occasional years, and more or less locally.

CONTROL

Orchards thoroughly sprayed with arsenicals will rarely require

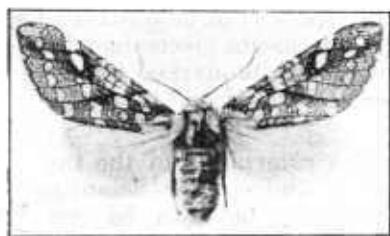


FIGURE 102.—The hickory tiger moth. Natural size.

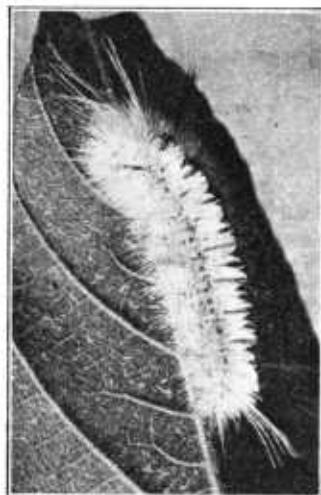


FIGURE 103.—Full grown larva of the hickory tiger moth. About natural size.

masses, there will be found a considerable number of tough horn-shaped cases, made by the apple leaf crumplers (*Mineola indigenella* Zell.), in which the larvae spend the winter. Although of minor

special treatment for the hickory tiger moth. When found in young orchards it may readily be controlled by the use of lead arsenate at the usual strength, the spray application being made as soon as the insects are detected. If the caterpillars when discovered are one-third grown or over, an increased amount of poison should be used.

APPLE LEAF CRUMPLER

In the course of the winter pruning, fruit growers often notice a mass of leaves (fig. 105), sometimes in considerable abundance, rather tightly tied to twigs. Upon tearing open such leaf

importance, this insect has occasionally become injurious, particularly in nurseries and young orchards. It is a native species, more or less common in the Northern and Central States, and feeds upon the apple, crab apple, quince, cherry, wild cherry, plum, wild plum, peach, pear, and perhaps other host plants.

LIFE HISTORY

The insect passes the winter within the winter case as a half-grown caterpillar (fig. 106), which becomes active in the spring as the buds begin to open. Later bunches of

leaves are tied together, among which the caterpillars feed. The fruit is occasionally attacked after it is set and sometimes the bark of the new wood. By late spring or early summer the caterpillars are full-grown and attach their cases, in which the pupal stage is passed, to the bark of the tree. A full-grown larva is about three-fifths of an inch long, greenish brown, with a dark-brown head. In due time the moths emerge and deposit their very minute eggs over the foliage of the host plant. The fore wings of the moth are light brown with silver markings and the wing expanse is about three-fourths of an inch. The larvae of the new brood feed upon the foliage until late fall, when they attach their cases to the trees as described.

CONTROL

Spraying with lead arsenate in the proportion of 1 pound to 50 gallons of water or fungicide is an effective remedy for this insect. The application should be given in the spring shortly after the leaves have begun to push out. In commercial orchards which have received regular sprayings, the leaf crumpler will rarely, if ever, require special treatment.

APPLE LEAF SKELETONIZER

In the Mississippi Valley States the apple leaf skeletonizer (*Canarsia hammondi* Riley) is at times the cause of important injury to



FIGURE 105.—Case in which apple leaf-crumper caterpillar passes the winter. Four times natural size.



FIGURE 104.—Cocoon of the hickory tiger moth. Natural size



FIGURE 106.—Winter case and caterpillar of the apple leaf crumpler. Three times natural size

young orchards (fig. 107) and to nursery trees. The caterpillars feed on the upper side of the leaves, protected by a web of silken threads. They skeletonize the leaves, eating out the soft leaf tissue,

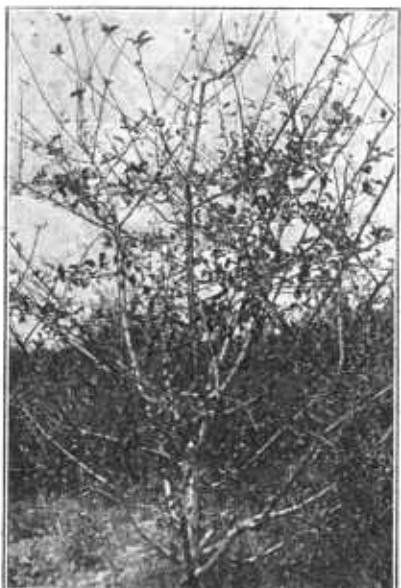


FIGURE 107.—Apple tree defoliated by apple leaf skeletonizer

leaves, the moth appearing during the following May and June. This is a small, purplish-brown insect, with two silvery-gray bands across each fore wing. The fore wings have an expanse of nearly half an inch. The fore wings have an expanse of nearly half an inch. The larva (fig. 108) is pale brownish or greenish, about half an inch long, with four shiny tubercles on the back behind the head. There are two broods of larvae each year, the first during midsummer and the second in the fall, the last brood changing to pupae with the coming of cold weather.

This insect will readily yield to thorough spraying of the foliage with lead arsenate at the usual strengths.

APPLE LEAF SEWER

The presence in orchards of the apple leaf sewer (*Ancylis nubeculana* Clem.), sometimes called the apple leaf folder, is indicated by the occurrence of leaves folded, as in Figure 109, often exhibiting a somewhat scorched

appearance and with the upper parenchyma of the leaves more or less consumed. This insect only occasionally attracts attention, usually in unsprayed or neglected orchards or on young apple or nursery



FIGURE 108.—Larva of apple leaf skeletonizer and its work on apple leaf. Enlarged three times



FIGURE 109.—Work of the apple leaf sewer

trees that do not receive arsenical sprays. It is a native insect and is confined principally to the eastern half of the United States and to certain districts of Canada. The apple appears to be the only plant upon which it subsists, though it is probable that it feeds upon wild crab and other plants related to the apple.

The insect hibernates as a larva (fig. 110) within the folded leaves that have fallen to the ground. At this time it is about half an inch in length and light gray; the head is yellow with a somewhat darker thoracic shield, bearing a black spot on each side. In the spring the larvae change to brownish pupae, from which the moths issue. The adult, or moth (fig. 111), is white, with markings of brown, and the wing expanse is about three-fourths of an inch. The small, flat, oval, yellow eggs are placed on the foliage and are usually securely glued to the under surface of the leaf. Upon hatching, the larva spins a silken web on the lower leaf surface, where it begins eating the parenchyma, gradually folding over, as it grows, a portion of the lower side of the leaf. After feeding awhile in this somewhat restricted area, it eats its way through the upper tissues and migrates to a near-by leaf, where it begins another web on the lower leaf surface and fastens together the opposite halves of the leaf. The leaves are folded in this way until the larva completes its growth, and thus a single caterpillar will often injure several leaves. The larva remains through the winter within the last leaf attacked, in the fallen leaves on the ground.

In orchards regularly sprayed for the codling moth this species will require no specific treatment. Where for any reason special applications are necessary, lead arsenate should be used at the usual strength for caterpillars of this character. The raking together and burning in early spring of fallen, infested leaves may also be advisable, if the insect is particularly abundant.



FIGURE 111.—Adult of the apple leaf sewer. About natural size



FIGURE 110.—Larva of apple leaf sewer. About natural size

CIGAR CASE-BEARER

The cigar case-bearer (*Coleophora fletcherella* Fernald) is another species of minor importance, although it has occasionally been reported as doing considerable damage to foliage (fig. 112) in orchards that have been more or less neglected. It is primarily an apple and pear pest, but also attacks the quince, plum, cherry, and haw. It is thought to be a native species, feeding originally upon wild haws. Although reported principally from the North, it occurs in New Mexico and is likely to be found in most apple sections, since it is readily distributed on nursery stock.

The cigar case-bearer hibernates as a half-grown larva within its case, which is attached to a branch of the tree. The caterpillars become active on the approach of spring and migrate to the opening

buds, where they feed upon the expanding foliage and later eat the flower and fruit stems, as well as small holes into the young fruit itself. The black-headed, golden-brown larvae (figs. 113 and 114) quickly develop in size, which necessitates the enlarging of their winter cases, and later in the spring they construct new cigar-shaped cases in which they continue to feed until early summer. (Fig. 115.) Upon completing their growth, they migrate to the branches, where they transform successively to light-brown pupae and small, gray moths (fig. 116), with heavily fringed wings measuring about three-eighths of an inch from tip to tip. The eggs are very minute, yellow, and are usually located along the midrib on the lower surface of the leaves. Upon hatching, the larvae mine within the soft tissue of the leaves, and toward the approach of fall construct their winter cases, migrating in due time to the twigs, where they attach their cases and pass the winter.

Well-cared-for orchards will rarely, if ever, suffer important injury from the cigar case-bearer, and even though it may become abundant it can be easily controlled by spraying with lead arsenate



FIGURE 113.—Larva of cigar case-bearer. Six times natural size

at the usual strength. A contact spray, as 10 per cent kerosene emulsion or nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) in the proportion of one-half pint to 50 gallons of soapy water, may be employed instead of an arsenical.

PISTOL CASE-BEARER

Another curious little insect closely related to the cigar case-bearer and which occasionally attracts the attention of the orchardist is known as the pistol case-bearer (*Coleophora malivorella* Riley). This insect is usually of minor importance, except in more or less neglected orchards or during seasons of local outbreak, when it may become prominent. It has about the same distribution



FIGURE 112.—Apple leaves injured by cigar case-bearer

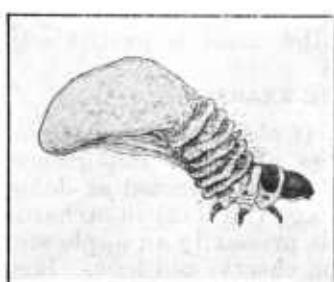


FIGURE 114.—Larva of cigar case-bearer protruding from its case. Enlarged twelve times

as the cigar case-bearer and attacks essentially the same host plants. Although the larvae usually attack the fruit, the chief damage is done to the flowering parts and foliage. This injury, however, to apple foliage is somewhat different from that caused by the cigar case-bearer, since the larvae of this species do not mine the foliage but, instead, eat out irregular patches, thus often skeletonizing the leaves. (Fig. 117.)

The life history of the pistol case-bearer resembles in a general way that of the cigar case-bearer, the principal points of difference being that the orange-colored larva (fig. 118) does not spend a part of its life as a miner; nor does it construct an entirely new case in place of its hibernaculum. Instead, the larva, as it grows,



FIGURE 116.—Moths of cigar case-bearer emerging from pupal cases. About natural size

builds additions to its winter case so as to accommodate its body. The adult is a small, light-brown moth, with orange wings which measure about half an inch from tip to tip. The eggs, which are deposited on the foliage, are very minute, reddish brown, strongly ribbed, and suggest a miniature inverted teacup.

The same suggestions given for the control of the cigar case-bearer are appropriate for this species.



FIGURE 115.—Larvae of the cigar case-bearer and their work on apple foliage. Slightly enlarged



FIGURE 117.—Pistol case-bearer and its work on apple foliage

TRUMPET LEAF MINER

The trumpet leaf miner (*Tischeria malifoliella* Clem.) is another species of minor importance, although the subject of occasional inquiry. Its injuries on different occasions have been of importance, and it has been perhaps more destructive than other related leaf miners. As the name suggests, the completed mines have somewhat the shape of a trumpet. (Fig. 119.) When abundant, the injury may result in some defoliation of the trees, with consequent injury to fruit buds and fruit. It is thought to be native and doubtless fed originally upon crab-apple trees and wild haws, as it does at the present time. It occurs rather generally throughout the eastern half of the United States and Canada.

The winter is passed in the larval stage within the mines in the fallen leaves (fig. 120), the mines being well lined with silk. The mature larva is about one-fifth of an inch in length, flat, legless, with a pale-green body and yellowish-brown head. It enters the pupal stage in the spring, and the moths are on the wing by the time the foliage is well out. The tiny moths have a wing expanse of about one-fourth inch, the fore wings being brown with a somewhat purplish luster. The elliptical eggs are

exceedingly minute, iridescent, of a greenish-yellow tint, and are placed on the foliage. Upon hatching the larvae immediately burrow into the upper surface of the leaf, eventually eating out the characteristic trumpet-shaped mines. There are from two to four generations each year, depending upon the locality.

This insect can be destroyed in its mine by the use of contact sprays, such as 12 to 15 per cent kerosene emulsion or nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) in the proportion of one-half pint to 50 gallons of water, to which should be added 2 pounds of soap which has previously been dissolved with water. Plowing under leaves prior



FIGURE 118.—Larva of pistol case-bearer. Enlarged six times.

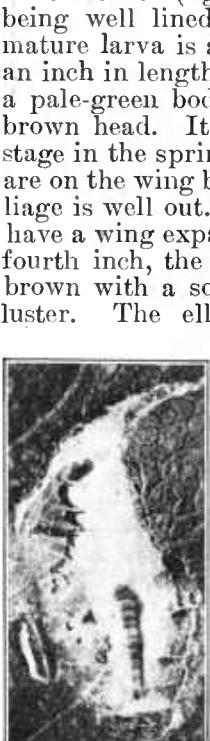


FIGURE 120.—Larva of trumpet leaf miner. (Epidermis over mine removed.) Enlarged four times.



FIGURE 119.—Mines of trumpet leaf miner

to the blooming period of the apple should aid in its control by burying the overwintering insects, thus preventing the escape of the moths.

SPOTTED TENTIFORM LEAF MINER

The spotted tentiform leaf miner (*Lithocolletes blanquardella* Fab.) also is of comparatively little importance, but is occasionally the subject of inquiry from observing orchardist. As a larva it makes a small mine on the lower surface of the leaf, but since it does not devour all of the soft tissue, the mine appears spotted when viewed from above. Owing to the crumpling of the leaf, the mine bears some resemblance to a tent, and hence the rather fanciful common name. This insect, of European origin, is now distributed over most of the eastern part of the United States and has been reported as feeding upon the apple, quince, plum, wild cherry, wild haws, and sweet-scented crab.

It passes the winter in the pupal stage within the mine on fallen leaves. The moths emerge in the spring and deposit their minute eggs on the foliage. The resulting yellowish caterpillars are about one-fifth of an inch in length. The moths are very small, with brownish fore wings on which are white lines and spots, with a black spot at the tip of the wing.

The suggestions given for the control of the trumpet leaf miner are applicable to the present species.

UNSPOTTED TENTIFORM LEAF MINER

The larva of the unspotted tentiform leaf miner (*Ornix geminatella* Pack.) makes a tentlike mine (fig. 121) on the underside of the leaf somewhat larger than that of the spotted tentiform leaf miner and, unlike the latter, consumes all of the leaf tissue except the veinlets. It attacks, in addition to the apple, pear, crab apple, haw, plum, and wild cherry. Although sometimes abundant in orchards, it is of very minor importance. It is probably a native species, and is more common in the Northern and Middle States than elsewhere.

It hibernates in the pupal stage within a cocoon made in the folded edge of a leaf. (Fig. 122.) The pupa is about one-sixth of an inch long

and yellowish brown. The small grayish moths issue in the spring and deposit on the foliage, usually on the lower surface, their very minute eggs, which are invisible to the naked eye. The footless larvae soon hatch and eat their way into the inner leaf



FIGURE 121.—Appearance of apple leaves infested with unspotted tentiform leaf miner



FIGURE 122.—Pupa of unspotted tentiform leaf miner. Enlarged nine times

tissue, where they start their characteristic mines. The full-grown larva is about one-fourth of an inch long and greenish gray. Several generations are produced yearly, the last brood pupating during the late fall and passing the winter as pupae.

Special remedial measures will seldom be necessary, but if such is the case the most practical means of control is, perhaps, to destroy the overwintering pupae in the fallen leaves by plowing and disking the orchard in the early spring previous to the issuance of the adults.

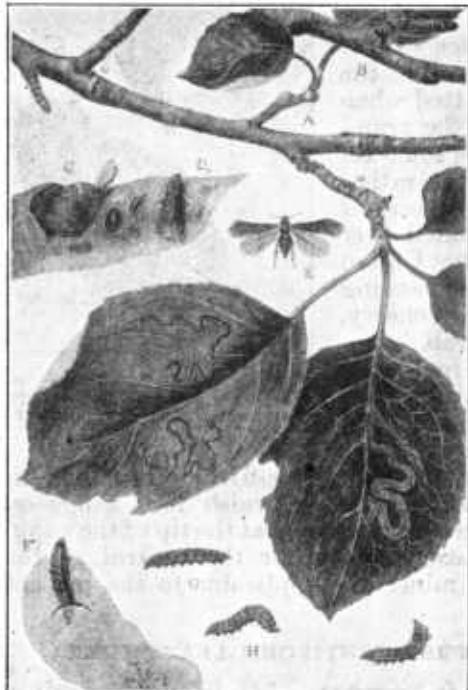


FIGURE 123.—Serpentine leaf miner: A, Apple twig in fall, showing serpentine mines on leaves and new cocoons at *a* and *a'*; B, winter twig, showing discolored cocoon at *b*; C, cocoon in spring with empty pupal skin projecting, enlarged; D, emerged moth resting on side of twig, enlarged; E, moth with wings spread, enlarged; F, mature caterpillar emerging from slit at end of its mine, enlarged; G, H, I, attitudes of the caterpillar when crawling, enlarged.

foliage, giving rise to larvae which characteristic serpentine fashion.

The insect is controlled by the same measures effective against the trumpet leaf miner (p. 60).

APPLE BUCCULATRIX

In the course of the winter pruning the attention of the fruit grower is sometimes attracted to the small, whitish, ribbed cocoons (fig. 124, A) of the apple bucculatrix (*Bucculatrix pomifoliella* Clem.). These measure about one-fourth of an inch in length and

SERPENTINE LEAF MINER

Fruit growers, particularly in the New England States, have frequently had their attention attracted to long serpentine mines on the upper surface of the leaves. These mines (fig. 123, A) are constructed by the so-called serpentine leaf miner (*Nepiticula pomivorella* Pack.), which is more an object of curiosity than of economic importance.

The insect winters in the larval stage within a small brownish cocoon (fig. 123, C), which is usually attached to a twig or in the crotch of limbs. In the spring the full-grown dark-green larvae (fig. 123, G, H, I), measuring nearly one-eighth inch in length, transform to greenish pupae, from which develop the small, dark-purplish moths, with crimson, yellow-tufted heads. (Fig. 123, D, E.) The eggs are very minute and are deposited on the mine in the leaves in char-

are often built side by side, usually on the lower side of small branches and twigs. Although widely distributed from the Atlantic coast to the Rocky Mountains, it is seldom that this insect causes important injury, except perhaps in instances where the trees have been long neglected. The apple bucculatrix, or ribbed cocoon maker of the apple, as it is sometimes called, is essentially an apple pest, but has also been recorded as feeding on docks, alfalfa, and certain grasses.

LIFE HISTORY

The apple bucculatrix winters as a pupa within the cocoon. Early in the spring, about the time the foliage begins to expand, the very small, delicate moths (fig. 124, B) commence to issue and deposit their minute, pale-greenish eggs (fig. 124, C) on the lower side of the leaves. The moths are light brown, with heavily fringed wings, which have an expanse of about one-tenth of an inch. Upon hatching the young larvae eat into the leaves and make small mines (fig. 124, D), somewhat less than an inch in length. They then desert the mines and construct on the surface of the leaves small flimsy cocoons in which they molt. After feeding upon the leaf surface for a few days they make a second cocoon for molting purposes, after which they continue their surface feeding for a period of about a week. When the foliage is attacked by large numbers of the caterpillars it will become more or less brown and shriveled. The full-grown larvae construct their cocoons on the foliage, fruit, or twigs. In northern New England there is only one generation, but farther south two generations occur annually, the second brood of moths issuing during the latter part of the summer. The life history and habits of the second brood are similar to those described for the first brood.

CONTROL

Orchards regularly sprayed for the more important apple insects will seldom require special treatment for this pest. The dormant-spray treatment with lime-sulphur solution will aid in destroying the overwintering pupae, and the summer applications of lead arsenate will kill the larvae that feed on the leaf surface. After pruning the trees the wood should be burned before spring, thus destroying the overwintering pupae.

PALMER WORM

If history repeats itself in the case of the palmer worm (*Ypsolophus ligulellus* Hüb.), fruit growers are not likely to encounter this insect in injurious numbers more than once in a lifetime, since in the past outbreaks have occurred only at intervals of about 60 years. The injury is caused by the small worms feeding on the foliage in

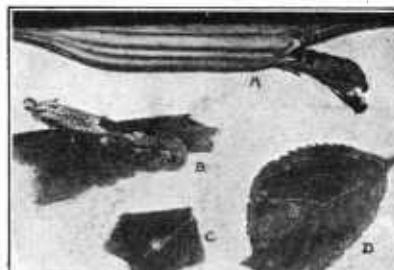


FIGURE 124.—Apple bucculatrix: A, Cocoon and empty pupal case, enlarged; B, moth, enlarged; C, egg, enlarged; D, work of the apple bucculatrix on foliage

the open or within a few leaves or sometimes beneath the protection of a folded leaf edge. They sometimes skeletonize the foliage when abundant and often eat holes in the young fruit, resulting in a type of injury which may be more or less confused with that caused by the green fruit worms (p. 22). In addition to attacking the fruit and foliage of the apple, the palmer worm has been reported as feeding principally upon the foliage of pear, plum, cherry, and oak. It has been reported chiefly from New York, the New England States, and Canada.

LIFE HISTORY

The palmer worm supposedly hibernates in the adult or moth stage. The moths are of a variable gray to brown color and measure about half an inch across the expanded wings. Early in the spring,

upon the appearance of the foliage, the moths deposit their very small whitish eggs on the under-side of the leaves, and from these hatch the destructive worms or larvae. When full grown the larvae are about half an inch in length and are usually dark green traversed by four whitish stripes the outer of which are broader than the inner. After feeding for a period of about a month, the larvae transform to small brownish pupae, which are secured to the leaves by means of silken threads or in some instances are to be found on the ground. Through further transformation the moths issue during midsummer, but do not oviposit, so far as is known, until the following spring. There is thus only one generation annually.



FIGURE 125.—Apple leaf infested with pear-leaf blister mite

CONTROL

In common with many other leaf-feeding caterpillars, the palmer worm may be controlled by means of a spray consisting of lead arsenate, 1 pound to 50 gallons of water or fungicide, applied at the time of hatching. If the worms are not discovered until partly grown, it may be necessary to use a stronger dosage, depending on their size.

PEAR-LEAF BLISTER MITE

The pear-leaf blister mite (*Eriophyes pyri* Pag.) attacks the foliage of the apple and pear, producing minute greenish or reddish galls or blisters, which after a time turn brown, spotting the leaves with dead areas like certain forms of fungous attack. (Fig. 125.) When the galls are abundant, there results considerable dead and

injured tissue, giving the leaves a brownish and shriveled appearance. Badly infested orchards have a distinctly yellowish cast, and later become brownish as the injured patches discolor. Injury to the foliage causes much of it to fall, with consequent damage to the tree and fruit crop. The fruit itself is sometimes injured, as shown in Figure 126. The pear is more generally infested by this species than the apple, and the serviceberry and other host plants are also attacked. While not a pest of first-class importance to apple growers generally, nevertheless its injuries in some localities must be provided against. Damage to the apple has been especially pronounced in New England, in portions of New York, and more recently in certain apple-growing districts in Washington. Recently apple leaves infested by this mite have come from Mississippi. The pear-leaf blister mite is of European origin and was probably introduced into this country many years ago on nursery stock. It is now widely distributed in the United States wherever pears are grown.

LIFE HISTORY

The adults pass the winter beneath the bud scales. They (fig. 127) are very small, elongate, whitish, and measure about one one-hundred-and-twenty-fifth of an inch in length. In the spring, when the leaves are unfolding, the mites enter through the lower epidermis, and their activities soon bring about the blister-like galls in which they live and multiply. After reaching maturity, the mites desert the old galls, make new ones, and produce a new generation. A succession of generations is thus developed each season up to the approach of cold weather, when the mites migrate to the bud scales, beneath which they hibernate.



FIGURE 127.—Adults of pear-leaf blister mite. Enlarged 40 times

readily controlled by the use of commercial lime-sulphur (32° Baumé) $6\frac{1}{2}$ gallons with water sufficient to make a total of 50 gallons, as employed in the control of the San Jose scale. If the application is for the mite only, a somewhat weaker spray will answer, using $5\frac{1}{2}$ gallons of the concentrate and sufficient water to make 50 gallons. The application may be made after the leaves have dropped in the fall, or in the spring before the buds have swollen to any extent. Lubricating-oil emulsions, miscible oils, and kerosene emulsion of standard dormant-tree strengths may also be used effectively.



FIGURE 126.—Injury to fruit by pear-leaf blister mite

CONTROL

If it is necessary to spray the orchard for the San Jose scale, no special treatment for the pear-leaf blister mite will be required. It is

RED SPIDER

The injury to the apple by the red spider (*Tetranychus telarius* L.) results from the sucking out of plant juices, giving the foliage an unhealthy, mottled appearance. If the attack is severe, the injury may be quite important, resulting in defoliation of the trees and interference with the proper development of the fruit and fruit buds. This mite is likely to be most troublesome during dry seasons, and in arid or semiarid regions it is a pest of importance. Its injuries, however, are often confused with those of the clover mite. The red spider is widely disseminated throughout the United States and attacks the apple and many other deciduous fruits, cultivated flowers, vines, truck crops, etc. It is preeminently a pest in greenhouses and requires constant vigilance on the part of growers to keep it in check.

The insect hibernates in the adult stage beneath fallen leaves, weeds, and trash. The adult female (fig. 128) is about one-sixtieth of an inch long, varies in color from a russet green to almost black, but is usually dark red, and is generally marked with two large, dark spots on each side of the body. The male is smaller and is russet salmon, with the lateral spots less conspicuous than in the other sex. The eggs are globular and when freshly laid are clear, gradually turning opaque, and later a dark straw color. The newly hatched mite is round, colorless, with six legs, and is about the same size as the minute egg, which is about one two-hundred-and-fiftieth of an inch in diameter. The mites spin a very fine web over the leaf and feed under this protection. There are several generations during the season.

Dusting the trees while in foliage with a mixture of 50 per cent sulphur and 50 per cent hydrated lime is recommended for controlling the red spider, as is also spraying with summer-strength lime-sulphur wash.

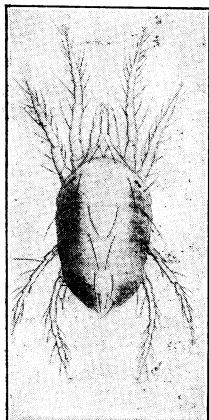


FIGURE 128.—Female red spider. Enlarged 50 times

CLOVER MITE

The clover mite (*Bryobia praetiosa* Koch), known also as the brown mite, is very small, scarcely as large as a pinhead, reddish or brownish, and readily recognized under a hand lens by its unusually long front legs. (Fig. 129.) In the Middle West and the Eastern States this mite is of importance principally on account of its damage to clover and various grasses, its injuries to fruit trees not, as a rule, attracting attention except during periods of drought. It is, however, sometimes complained of by householders, since during the fall the mites may enter dwellings, often in large numbers, and become a decided nuisance. In the more arid sections of the country, particularly west of the Rocky Mountains, the clover mite becomes one of the important orchard pests attacking most stone and pome fruits. Badly infested foliage assumes a yellowish, sickly appearance due to the injuries by the mites, and by midsummer or early fall much

of it may drop to the ground. In the East such injury is not uncommon to trees in sheltered locations and, in fact, in orchards where conditions are favorable for the development of the mites.

LIFE HISTORY

In warmer climates the clover mite may hibernate on the trees either in the adult or egg stage. In northern localities, where the temperature is more severe, eggs are deposited by the mites in the fall on twigs around bud scales, crotches of limbs, etc., and thus the winter is passed. The eggs are small, globular, and reddish, often occurring in large numbers and attracting the attention of orchardists during pruning operations. With the pushing out of the foliage in the spring, the eggs hatch, and the mites attack the leaves, producing several generations during the season.

CONTROL

The eggs and hibernating adults of the clover mite on trees will be destroyed by a thorough spraying with a 2 to 4 per cent lubricating-oil emulsion or with miscible oils at dormant strength. For the reduction of the clover-mite infestations on trees in foliage use summer-strength lime-sulphur in the pink and calyx spray applications. If desired, finely ground sulphur may be mixed with soapy water and sprayed on the plants, using 10 pounds of the sulphur to 50 gallons of water. Fish-oil soap, 2 pounds in 50 gallons of water, is also effective as a summer spray against the adult and young mites, but is ineffective against the eggs.

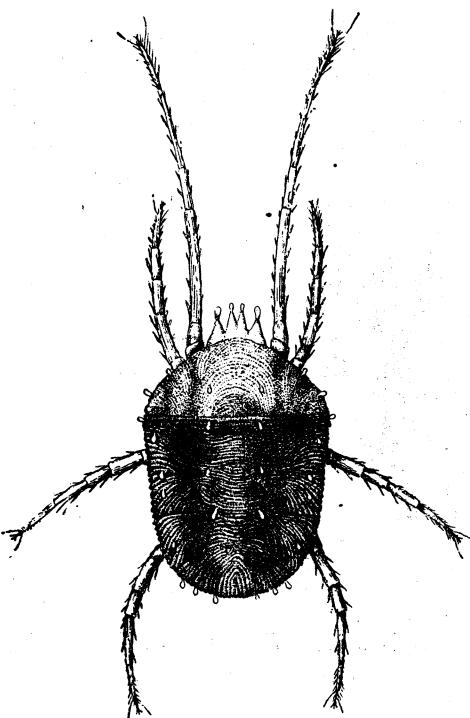


FIGURE 129.—Adult clover mite. Enlarged 45 times

EUROPEAN RED MITE

The European red mite (*Paratetranychus pilosus* C. & F.) is related to the clover mite and, like the latter, is not a true insect but belongs to the order of spiders. The adult is smaller than a pin-head and, since there are from four to six generations a year, may be found along with the eggs and young mites on the foliage throughout the growing season. This mite, however, unlike the clover mite, passes the winter in the egg stage only.

The eggs (fig. 130) are very minute, somewhat globular in form, and of a dull-reddish color. They are usually laid abundantly in the annual growth rings, bud scales, and in various depressions of

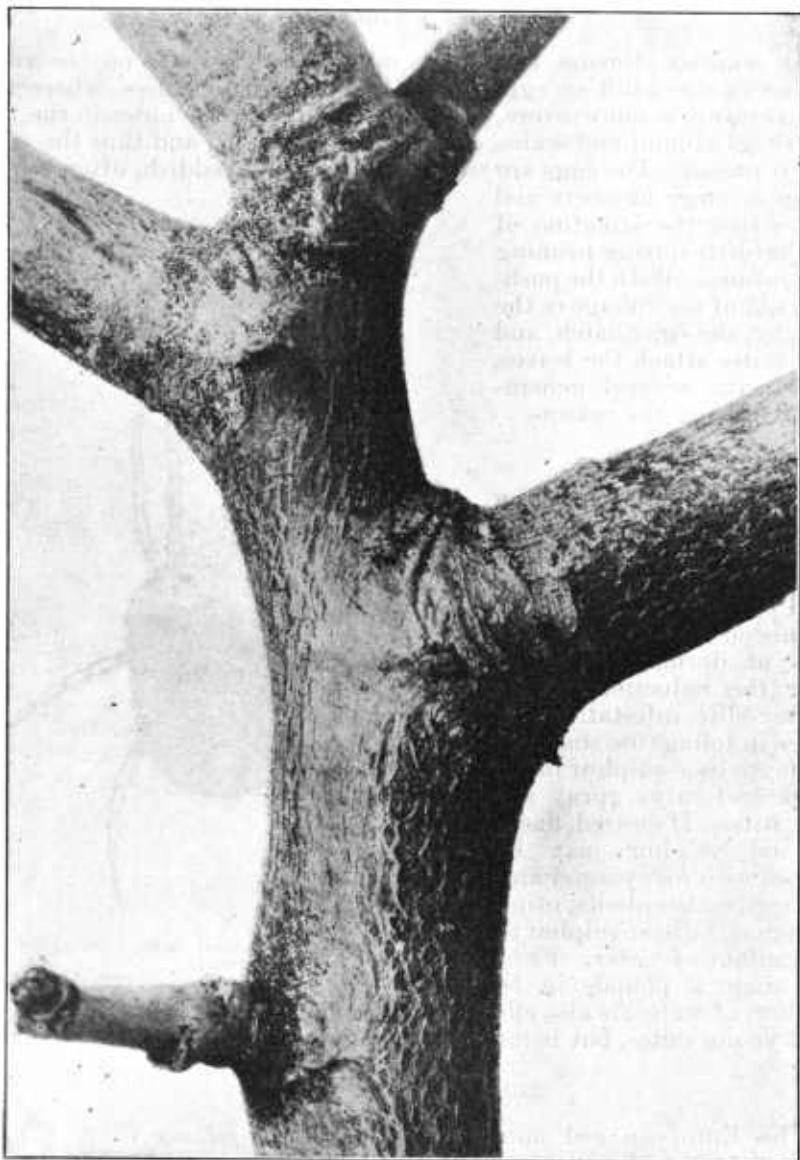


FIGURE 130.—Twig bearing winter eggs of the European red mite. Two and one-half times natural size.

the twigs of apple, peach, plum, pear, and other species of fruit trees.

The distribution of the European red mite covers practically all the eastern part of the United States, Arizona, Utah, Idaho, and

the Pacific Coast States. In recent years it has attracted considerable attention in eastern commercial orchards. The general type of injury caused by the European red mite is quite similar to that caused by the clover mite.

Satisfactory control may be obtained through the use of a dormant spray of a 2 to 4 per cent lubricating-oil emulsion or of a miscible oil at the strength recommended by the manufacturer. Dormant-strength sprays of lime-sulphur are not recommended for use against this mite, since they are ineffective against the winter eggs. Summer spraying, however, with lime-sulphur solutions at the strength usually employed against fungous disease ($1\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ gallons of the concentrate diluted with water to make 50 gallons) will aid in reducing the mite infestation. If the mite has become a serious pest, the dormant spray should not be omitted.

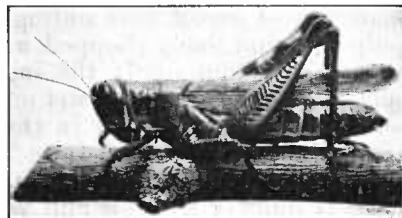


FIGURE 131.—The differential grasshopper (*Melanoplus differentialis*). About natural size

GRASSHOPPERS

Several species of grasshoppers, one of which is shown in Figure 131, at times occasion injury to apple trees by feeding upon leaves (fig. 132) or chewing the bark. During periods of serious outbreak this injury may be very important, and prompt and energetic measures are necessary to prevent destruction of the trees. Grasshopper injury is rarely of importance in the Eastern States, except in orchards adjacent to meadows which have recently been cut. In the West, however, injury in connection with grasshopper outbreaks may be much more important.

Most grasshoppers of importance to apple growers winter in the egg stage, the eggs being placed in podlike masses below the surface of the soil. The nymphs, or young insects, hatch in the spring and begin feeding on various kinds of plant growth. They mature during the summer and lay their eggs in the fall, along roadways, headlands, meadows, etc.

CONTROL MEASURES



FIGURE 132.—Apple tree defoliated by grasshoppers

In controlling grasshoppers the soil where the eggs are laid should be plowed or disked at any convenient time prior to the hatching period. A favorite means of combating grasshoppers at this time is to distribute here and there in the orchard bran-mash poisoned bait made according to the following formula:

Part 1.

Paris green (or white arsenic) -----	pounds	2½
Bran -----	do	50

Part 2.

Lemons (pulp and rind finely chopped) -----	fruits	6
Molasses (low grade preferred) -----	gallon	1
Water -----	gallons	5

Mix thoroughly the ingredients of part 1; next mix together the materials of part 2, first adding to the water the lemon juice and the pulp and rind finely chopped, and finally the molasses. When ready to use, mix thoroughly the ingredients of parts 1 and 2 and add sufficient water to make a wet mash. The mash should be thoroughly scattered broadcast early in the morning, preferably when the soil is damp, at the rate of from 3 to 5 pounds to the acre. In arid regions the mash should be scattered along damp irrigation laterals, since it quickly hardens and when dry is not readily eaten by the insects.

A further protection may be afforded fruit trees by spraying with lead arsenate in the proportion of 2 pounds to each 50 gallons of water or fungicide.

A type of apparatus known as the hopperdozer, having shallow compartments to hold kerosene, as shown in Figure 133, is frequently used. This is drawn through the orchard by a team, and the grass-hoppers are killed when they leap into the pans containing the oil.

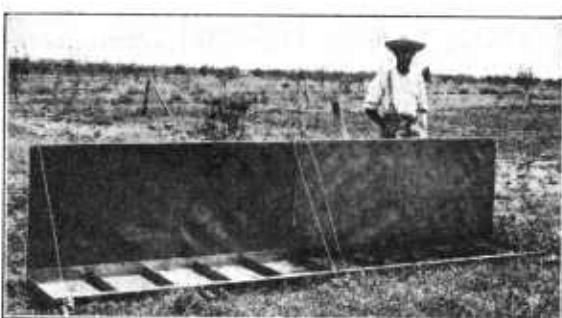


FIGURE 133.—Hopperdozer for catching grasshoppers

sect, is, owing to its great powers of reproduction, a pest of first-class importance. Two or three decades ago it was the center of attention by orchardists and others, and was the cause of losses amounting to many millions of dollars. It is thought to have been introduced from China, and was first found in this country in San Jose, Calif., about 1870. Since its introduction it has been distributed by means of nursery stock and other agencies to practically all the principal fruit districts of the United States. The development of effective and economical sprays, such as lime-sulphur wash and lubricating-oil emulsion, has enabled fruit growers satisfactorily to control the pest and they now have full confidence in their ability to keep it reduced below injurious numbers.

At the present time the insect throughout much of the fruit-growing regions of the Central and Northern States is of much less importance as an orchard pest than formerly, due apparently to several factors. Probably one of the most important of these is the general use by orchardists of dilute lime-sulphur as a summer spray, which

SAN JOSE SCALE

The San Jose scale (*Aspidiotus perniciosus* Comst.), while a comparatively small and insignificant appearing in-

observations and experiments have shown is effective in destroying many of the newly hatched insects, so that the trees are kept fairly well freed of the pest as an incident to the use of the wash for other purposes. The effectiveness of parasitic and predatory insect enemies in reducing the scale has also apparently been gradually increasing. In fact, the scale in certain orchards has become so reduced in numbers that it has been found feasible occasionally to omit the dormant treatment without undue increase of the insect. Such omission, however, if made, should be based on very careful examination of the orchard to ascertain whether such practice is warranted. Under favorable seasonal conditions the scale is able to increase rapidly and may do serious damage to the twigs, and in spotting the fruit, although present on the trees during the dormant period in apparently negligible numbers.

In common with other scale pests, the San Jose scale is a sucking insect and lives upon plant juices which it extracts from the twigs, limbs, trunk, foliage, and fruit. Small reddish discolorations will frequently be found at the point of feeding. On the fruit itself these dots are conspicuous and unsightly and lower its market value. (Fig. 134.) When abundant, this insect is capable of killing young trees within a few years, and older trees may ultimately be destroyed, although the process is a slower one. (Fig. 135.) Infested trees are dwarfed and unthrifty in appearance, and the incrusted twigs have an ash-gray color. (Fig. 136.) Some years ago it was not uncommon to find entire orchards destroyed, but in recent years the trees have been well protected from its ravages by means of spray solutions. It should not be inferred, however, that the San Jose scale is no longer a dangerous pest, since in the absence of adequate treatment it could readily reestablish itself in numbers that would again result in enormous losses to the fruit industry. It has been estimated that from the

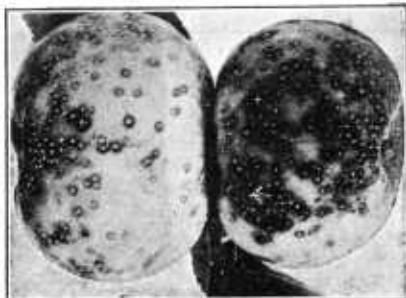


FIGURE 134.—Apples spotted by the San Jose scale



FIGURE 135.—Apple tree practically killed by the San Jose scale

limbs, trunk, foliage, and fruit. Small reddish discolorations will frequently be found at the point of feeding. On the fruit itself these dots are conspicuous and unsightly and lower its market value. (Fig. 134.) When abundant, this insect is capable of killing young trees within a few years, and older trees may ultimately be destroyed, although the process is a slower one. (Fig. 135.) Infested trees are dwarfed and unthrifty in appearance, and the incrusted twigs have an ash-gray color. (Fig. 136.) Some years ago it was not uncommon to find entire orchards destroyed, but in recent years the trees have been well protected from its ravages by means of spray solutions. It should not be inferred, however, that the San Jose scale is no longer a dangerous pest, since in the absence of adequate treatment it could readily reestablish itself in numbers that would again result in enormous losses to the fruit industry. It has been estimated that from the

progeny of a single female there may result over one and one-half billion females in the course of one season. From this the fruit grower will appreciate how readily this insect can reinfest and destroy an orchard. The apple, pear, and peach are its favorite food plants. Other deciduous fruit trees are subject to attack, as are also many bush fruits, shade and forest trees, and shrubs.



FIGURE 136.—Twig incrusted with the San Jose scale. Five times natural size.

wings. The young scales, or nymphs, are smaller and have a central scale covering with a central nipple.

LIFE HISTORY

At the approach of winter the San Jose scale is found in practically all stages, from the very young to the mature, but nearly all of the individuals die except those that are about half developed—the stage in which the scale seems best to resist winter conditions. In the spring the scales that have successfully survived the winter continue their development until they reach maturity, after which the females produce their living young. There are several generations during the course of the growing season, depending upon the locality. The waxy scale which protects the yellowish, saclike body of the female is circular, about the size of a pinhead, grayish, with a central nipple (fig. 137), whereas that of the male is oval, dark gray, with the nipple, or exuvium, toward the small end of the scale. (Fig. 137.) The adult male is orange colored and has two delicate

CONTROL

A heavy infestation of the San Jose scale is best reduced by a very thorough application *during the dormant season* of a 2 to 4 per cent lubricating-oil emulsion or a miscible oil at the strength recommended by the manufacturer. Concentrated lime-sulphur solution testing 32° Baumé, diluted in the proportion of 1 gallon to 7 gallons of water, or approximately 6½ gallons to each spray tank of 50

gallons capacity, is a very satisfactory spray for light to moderately heavy infestations. This wash may be applied any time after the leaves have dropped in the fall, provided the temperature is not freezing, and before the buds open in the spring. The dormant spraying, however, is usually deferred until after the winter pruning has removed much of the infested wood, thereby securing better results and saving spray material. If it is desired to spray for apple aphids, the dormant application may be delayed until the bud tips show green, when the same oil sprays or lime-sulphur solution combined with three-eighths of a pint of nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) to each 50 gallons



FIGURE 137.—San Jose scale: Males and females. Enlarged eight times



FIGURE 138.—Twig incrusted with oyster-shell scale. Enlarged four times

chardists and others who may discover its presence on their trees. It is apparently not very fastidious, being found on a great variety of fruit and shade trees, bushes, and shrubs. Poplar was long supposed to have been a favorite food plant, but it is now believed

may be employed to combat both scale and aphids. Owing, however, to the limited time available for this work before the foliage has advanced too far, adequate equipment is necessary to accomplish the work in an effective manner. During the summer season the young scale insects are killed by the summer strength of lime-sulphur concentrate (1½ gallons to 50 gallons of water), and spotting of the fruit is thereby considerably reduced.

OYSTER-SHELL SCALE

The oyster-shell scale (*Lepidosaphes ulmi* L.) is of common occurrence and because of its characteristic appearance (fig. 138) is readily identified by orchardists and others who may discover its presence on their trees. It is apparently not very fastidious, being found on a great variety of fruit and shade trees, bushes, and shrubs. Poplar was long supposed to have been a favorite food plant, but it is now believed

that the insect most commonly found on poplar is not the same as the apple form. Frequently the oyster-shell scale is found in apple orchards and although it usually ranks as a scale pest next to the San Jose, it is seldom very destructive. It sucks out the plant juices from the trees, limbs, trunks, foliage, and fruit, the principal injury occurring on the woody portions of the tree. Young trees heavily infested are sometimes killed, and older trees may occasionally be seriously injured, resulting in the death of twigs and limbs. On the fruit the scale causes small reddish dots, somewhat similar to those produced by the San Jose scale, thereby disfiguring the fruit and rendering it objectionable from the marketing standpoint.



FIGURE 139.—Inverted scale showing eggs of oyster-shell scale. Enlarged nine times

LIFE HISTORY

The scale passes the winter in the egg stage beneath the scale covering. The eggs (fig. 139), which are yellowish white, hatch in from two to three weeks after the apple blooms, and shortly thereafter the young yellowish-white scale insects settle on some part of the host plant. The male insects are winged, and upon reaching maturity during the summer mate with the females. The female scale covering is about one-eighth of an inch long, dark brownish gray, and resembles in general shape the oyster shell. The male scale covering is much smaller and is oval. In the North, where there is only one generation annually, egg laying takes place during late summer to early fall. In the more southern districts, including the southern parts of New Jersey and Pennsylvania, there are two generations yearly.

CONTROL

Although dormant treatment with winter-strength lime-sulphur solution is not generally so effective against the oyster-shell scale as against the San Jose scale, orchards regularly sprayed for the latter will not usually be troubled with the oyster-shell scale. In cases of severe infestation the use of oil sprays is recommended as a dormant treatment supplemented, if necessary, with a contact spray of 10 per cent kerosene emulsion applied when the young are hatching.

SCURFY SCALE

Apple and pear trees, as well as other common deciduous fruit trees and bushes, are frequently attacked by the scurfy scale (*Chionaspis furfura* Fitch), which retards the growth and vitality of



FIGURE 140.—The scurfy scale. Twice natural size

its host. In severe infestations this scale has been known to kill young trees, but usually injury is confined to a few twigs or limbs. Occasionally it settles and feeds upon the fruit, resulting in reddish dots somewhat larger than those caused by the San Jose scale. The scurfy scale (fig. 140) is native to the United States, and although it is widely disseminated, it attracts most attention in the New England and Middle Atlantic States. It is readily recognized by the characteristic dirty white, pear-shaped scale, somewhat less than one-eighth of an inch in length, which covers the yellowish female insect. (Fig. 141.) The male scale covering is snowy white, elongate, and only one twenty-fifth of an inch long. (Fig. 141.) The eggs and the young are purplish, tinted with red.

As in the case of the oyster-shell scale, this insect winters in the egg stage and the eggs begin hatching shortly after the young apples have set. In the Northern States there is only one brood, but in the extreme South there are probably as many as three.

The remedial measures suggested for the control of the San Jose and oyster-shell scales are appropriate for this species.

PINHOLE BORERS

The three species of beetles here treated are known to attack the limbs and branches of the apple, boring small pinholes directly through the bark and into the wood. The pinhole borers which penetrate into the wood of the tree are also known as ambrosia beetles, because they feed upon ambrosia fungi which grow along the walls of their burrows. In addition to stone and pome fruit trees, many other kinds of trees are subject to injury, usually after they have been weakened by other causes. One of the forms, the so-called pear-blight beetle (*Anisandrus pyri* Peck), bores into the branches of apple, pear, etc., and may cause a dying-back of the wood, the injury resembling that due to a disease known as pear blight. Another species, the apple wood stainer (*Monarthrum mali* Fitch), as the name suggests, is associated with a staining of the wood along the burrows of the beetle, due to the growth of one of the ambrosia fungi. A frequent companion of this beetle is another form similar in appearance and habits (*M. fasciatum* Say).

When remedial measures for the ambrosia beetles are necessary, the recommendations given for preventing injury by the fruit-tree bark beetle should be employed.

FRUIT-TREE BARK BEETLE

The fruit-tree bark beetle (*Scolytus rugulosus* Ratz.), also called the shot-hole borer, though closely related to the pinhole borers, differs materially in character of its attack. Its injuries are con-

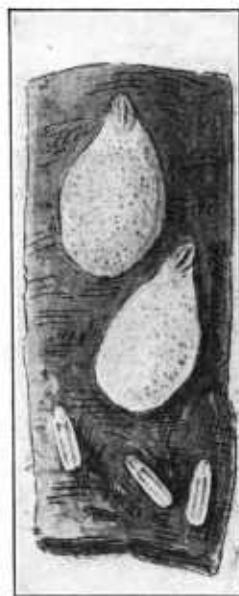


FIGURE 141.—Female and male scurfy scales. Enlarged ten times

fined principally to sickly or diseased trees, or to diseased limbs, and are not as a rule the primary cause of death of trees, though usually so regarded by fruit growers.

Both the beetles and grubs or larvae burrow into the bark and slightly into the wood, rapidly extending their burrows and destroying the vital part of the tree. On a tree that has been infested for some weeks the entrance and exit holes of the beetles may be so abundant as to suggest that the tree has been peppered with shot. (Fig. 142.) This insect is of European origin and is now widely distributed over the United States east of the Mississippi, and in numerous localities farther west. It attacks most pine and stone fruits, as well as mountain-ash, chokeherry, June berry, wild plum, serviceberry, and perhaps other plants.

LIFE HISTORY

During the winter season the fruit-tree bark beetle is in the larval or grub stage within the larval galleries. The mature larvae are

whitish and are about three-sixteenths of an inch long. They pupate early in the spring, and the beetles, which are about one-tenth of an inch in length and dark brown, emerge in late spring to early summer, according to the latitude. The females proceed to the trees and burrow through the bark until the sapwood is reached, where they make a round hole about the size of a pinhead. They then gnaw out a somewhat larger tunnel for a distance of about 2 inches parallel with the grain of the wood. Along the sides of this brood chamber small cavities are made, into each of which an egg is placed. These eggs

FIGURE 142.—Exit holes of fruit-tree bark beetle. Slightly enlarged

hatch in a few days and the larvae as they grow tunnel between the bark and sapwood in a direction at right angles to the brood chambers to a distance of about 3 to 4 inches. Upon attaining their full growth the larvae pupate in cells just under the outer part of the sapwood. Shortly, through further transformation, the adults appear and cut their way out through the bark, making exit holes similar to those made by the females in entering the tree. In the North there are two generations a year, while in the South at least three and possibly four generations develop annually.

PREVENTIVE MEASURES

To prevent injury by this insect great care should be taken to remove all breeding places within or adjacent to the orchard. Sickly trees will harbor the fruit-tree bark beetle, and in this way large numbers of the pest will become established within the orchard.

Cutting out and destroying infested trees and limbs and maintaining the trees in a thrifty condition will vastly reduce the injury of this pest. Where prunings are piled up and allowed to remain near orchards, the beetles often develop in numbers, attack more or less weakened trees, or even healthy trees, and by their repeated onslaughts do considerable harm, or eventually cause the trees to succumb. Thorough destruction of such prunings and weakened trees will usually correct such a situation, and the more or less healthy trees should be stimulated with a nitrogenous fertilizer, such as nitrate of soda, and cultivation. After a tree has once become infested there is no practical method of destroying the insects under the bark. A heavy application of whitewash in the spring just before the beetles begin their attack will act as a moderate preventive.

BUFFALO TREE HOPPER

The injury caused by the buffalo tree hopper (*Ceresa bubalus* Fab.), and also by other tree hoppers, is due to the punctures made by the females in egg laying and the scars resulting therefrom. The female of the buffalo tree hopper cuts two slits in the bark with her ovipositor on the upper side of the smaller branches. The bark between the cuts is loosened and the twigs roughened and weakened. (Figs. 143 and 144.)

In most sections the buffalo tree hopper is not an enemy of importance to the apple, though there are records of serious injury in the upper Mississippi Valley. Young trees usually suffer worst, and where the egg punctures are abundant growth of the twigs is retarded. It is a native species and is rather generally distributed over the Middle and Eastern States, ranging into Canada, but has always attracted most attention in the Middle West. The buffalo tree hopper feeds upon a considerable number of pome and stone fruits, thorn bush, etc., as well as numerous



FIGURE 143.—Injury to twigs by buffalo tree hopper



FIGURE 144.—Work of the buffalo tree hopper

upon the locust, cottonwood, thorn bush, etc., as well as numerous vegetables.

LIFE HISTORY

The insect winters in the egg stage in the little cuts made by the female. The eggs are one-tenth of an inch long, cylindrical, whitish,

and as many as 12 are placed side by side in the incisions in the twigs. The eggs hatch in the spring, and the young nymphs feed upon various weeds in the vicinity until they reach the adult stage. At this time the insect (fig. 145) is about three-eighths of an inch in length, grayish, triangular, with enlarged prothorax, suggesting in miniature the appearance of a buffalo.



FIGURE 145.—Adult buffalo tree hopper. Enlarged four times

In the work of pruning, scarred twigs should be removed and burned to insure the destruction of the overwintering eggs. The use of a 4 per cent lubricating-oil emulsion while the trees are dormant has been found effective in the Pacific Northwest against the eggs of the tree hoppers. Special care should be given to the thorough spraying of the lower branches, in which the majority of the eggs are deposited.



FIGURE 147.—Appearance of punctured twigs a few years after cicada attack

FIGURE 146: A black and white photograph showing two tree twigs standing upright. The twigs are heavily damaged, with deep, irregular holes and extensive tissue loss, characteristic of cicada egg-laying damage.

CONTROL

The most practical method of control consists in keeping down the weeds and other food plants of the insect by clean cultivation in and around the orchard.

In the work of pruning, scarred twigs should be removed

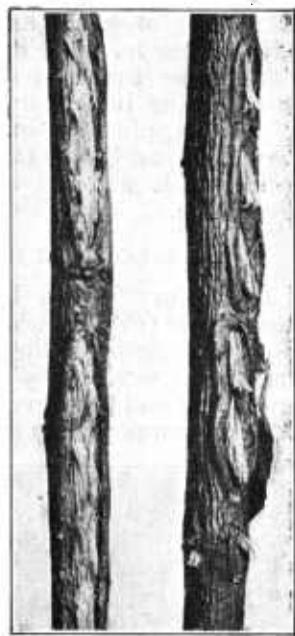


FIGURE 146.—Injury to twigs caused by periodical cicada in depositing eggs

PERIODICAL CICADA

Few insects have attracted as much public attention as the periodical cicada (*Tibicina septendecim* L.), more popularly known as the "17-year locust." In northern localities this insect appears every 17 years, or oftener where the broods overlap, whereas in the South the life cycle is completed in 13 years. The forthcoming of the locusts is usually heralded by announcements in the newspapers and by other agencies. Frequently the accounts of

the impending danger to orchards and shade trees are much exaggerated and cause an unwarranted fear of destruction. The chief injury to trees is caused by the females in depositing their eggs in the twigs; young orchards adjacent to woods often suffer severely, and in extreme cases young trees may be killed. Older trees suffer much less, particularly if the winter pruning is omitted previous to the "locust year." The punctured twigs (figs. 146 and 147) are more or less weakened and break off readily and are also more subject to attack along the egg scar by the woolly apple aphid.

The periodical cicada is a native pest which is found widely distributed over the Atlantic Coast States and the Middle Western States. The females oviposit in the apple, pear, and other deciduous fruit trees and in many forest trees, as oak, hickory, etc., but avoid pines, cedars, and other trees that exude gummy substances.

In the spring of the locust years the nymphs leave the soil and migrate to the trunks, limbs, and foliage of adjacent trees, where they molt, the cast skins (fig. 148) remaining rather firmly attached to the point chosen.

Within a week or so the females are actively depositing their eggs, which do not hatch until a month and a half or two months after being laid. The adult (fig. 149) measures about $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches and is black, the eyes, legs, and the margin of the upper veins being orange red. Near the tip of each of the fore wings is a marking that resembles the letter W. The eggs are about one-twelfth of an inch in length, pearly white, and slightly curved. The newly hatched larva is yellowish white with reddish eyes. Leaving the fallen twig it burrows into the ground, where as it grows it continues to feed upon the roots of plants until the next locust year arrives.

Probably no important injury follows this subterranean feeding, even in the worst infested localities.

As a matter of precaution it is best not to set out young orchards during the spring of a locust year, and in orchards already established, especially of young trees, the winter pruning preceding the scheduled arrival of the cicada should be lighter than usual or omitted until the insects disappear. After the visitation has passed the injured wood should be pruned out and destroyed by burning before



FIGURE 148.—Cast nymphal skin of periodical cicada. Enlarged about one and two-thirds times natural size



FIGURE 149.—Two periodical cicadas resting on twig. About one-half natural size

the eggs hatch. Little, if any, success has followed the use of insecticides against the adults. Prized plants around the home can best be protected from attack by use of mosquito netting or wrappings that will prevent the egg laying by the adults.

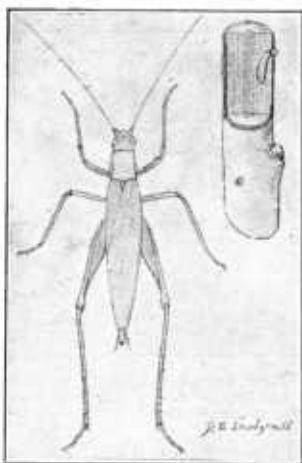


FIGURE 150.—Snowy tree cricket, female, twice natural size, and section of twig showing egg and egg puncture one and one-half times natural size

The snowy tree cricket passes the winter in the egg stage in the punctures made in apple twigs and other plants, the young developing in late spring. The crickets feed on a variety of substances, including plant lice, plant material, and often ripe fruit, in which they eat out holes sometimes attributed to bees.

Well-cared-for orchards will not suffer from injury by this insect. Where tree-cricket cankers are found, they should be cut out and the surface treated with a good wound paint.

ROUNDHEADED APPLE-TREE BORER

The roundheaded apple-tree borer (*Saperda candida* Fab.), which is now widely distributed throughout the eastern half of the United States, is the most important of the apple-tree borers and is responsible for the killing of many young trees. The injury is caused by the larvae or borers (fig. 151) feeding upon the inner bark and wood, and several of these larvae may often be found in the same tree. Infested trees may be detected by the reddish castings which are forced out through small holes near the base of the tree (fig. 152), and often there will be small oval holes

SNOWY TREE CRICKET

Apple orchards more or less neglected and grown up with weeds and other rank vegetation or surrounded with such growths are sometimes injured by females of the snowy tree cricket (*Oecanthus niveus* De G.) (fig. 150) in the course of their egg laying. The eggs (fig. 150) are deposited singly in punctures in the smaller branches of the apple and other trees. These punctures in themselves are of but little importance, but they often form a starting place for fungous diseases and thus become enlarged into cankerous brown spots of some size which do material injury as they develop. Colonies of the woolly aphid are often found at these places. The feeding and egg-laying habits of tree crickets favor the dissemination of bark diseases of the apple, as careful studies have shown.



FIGURE 151.—Roundheaded apple-tree borer, second summer in tree. Natural size

in the trunk some 8 or 10 inches from the ground from which the adult has already escaped. (Fig. 153.) The more important food plants include the apple, quince, pear, serviceberry, wild crab, and mountain-ash.



FIGURE 152.—Castings of roundheaded apple-tree borer at base of apple tree

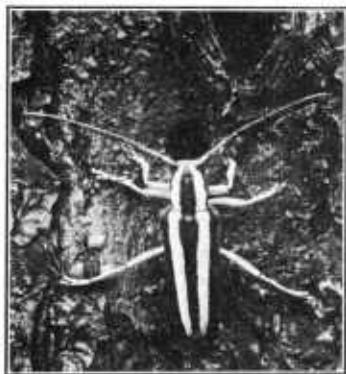


FIGURE 153.—Adult roundheaded apple-tree borer just emerged from exit hole in bark. Natural size

LIFE HISTORY

The beetle passes the winter in the larval stage within the burrow near the base of the tree, though the larvae that are to transform in the spring to the adult stage are to be found in the pupal chamber. The larva, when mature, measures about an inch in length, is legless, and has a broad thorax with a relatively small dark head. The pupa (fig. 154) is yellowish white, with small spines on its back. Pupation occurs about the time the apple trees bloom; and later, through further transformation, the adult (fig. 153) appears. The beetle measures about three-fourths of an inch in length, has long antennae, and the wing covers are light brown with two longitudinal white stripes, which also are found on the thorax and head. When ready to issue in late spring or early summer, the beetle cuts its way through the bark, leaving an exit hole as described. After emergence it spends considerable time among the branches of the trees, where it feeds to a certain extent upon the bark and also on the mid-ribs and stems of the leaves. The females usually begin to lay within a week or 10 days after emergence. The rusty-brown eggs, about one-eighth of an inch in length (fig. 155), are laid in small cuts made by the beetle with its jaws on the trunk near the base of the tree. Usually two or three eggs are deposited by a beetle at one time. Upon hatching the larvae burrow into the inner bark and feed thereon until late in the season, when they usually cut their way into the sapwood, where the winter is passed. In the spring the feeding is resumed, the larvae penetrating the solid wood. Some individuals have life cycles



FIGURE 154.—Pupa of roundheaded apple-tree borer. Slightly enlarged

of two years, others three years. The borer with a 2-year life cycle eats out a burrow during the summer, forming at its end the pupal chamber in which it pupates the following spring, whereas the insect with a 3-year cycle feeds within the solid wood for another season and then prepares its pupal cell, from which the adult issues the following year.

PREVENTIVE AND CONTROL MEASURES

Worming trees by means of a knife and wire to hook out the larva from its burrow is the method of control most frequently practiced. The position of the gallery is best located by means of the stringlike mass of reddish castings pushed out at the base of the tree. When the larva is in the pupal

FIGURE 155.—Eggs of round-headed apple-tree borer. Enlarged eight times

chamber it can not be readily reached by the wire because the gallery is plugged with woody tissue; in this event a small piece of cotton saturated with carbon disulphide may be inserted in the burrow, after which the hole should be plugged with moist earth so as to confine the fumes. If worming is done regularly each fall as soon as possible after the eggs have hatched, and special attention given to finding and destroying the young borers still working in the sapwood, the task of worming will be lightened and the more serious injury to the tree from older borers avoided.

In the latitude of Washington, D. C., worming as a rule should be completed before September, while farther south it may be done a month or so earlier, and in the North it may be deferred until the middle of September.

Host plants other than cultivated fruit trees should not be allowed to grow near the orchards, since they serve as breeding grounds for the beetle.



FIGURE 156.—A leaning tree having trunk exposed to direct rays of sun is very likely to be attacked by the flat-headed apple borer

Paints and washes are sometimes used to deter the beetle from egg laying. Various results have been obtained from their use. If paint is employed, it should be of pure white lead and raw linseed oil mixed to a consistency somewhat thicker than that used in general painting. The earth should first be removed from the base of the tree to a depth of 3 or 4 inches and the bark scales and dirt scraped from the trunk for a distance of about a foot above the ground. The paint should then be applied to the prepared part of the trunk with a brush, and after it has dried the earth should be replaced.

Tree protectors made of newspapers, building paper, wood veneer, and cylinders of fine-meshed wire screen, the tops of which have been plugged with cotton, are sometimes used to prevent the beetle from ovipositing around the bases of the trees.

The arsenical sprays regularly used in commercial orchards against other insects are of some value in killing the adults, which feed to a certain extent upon the leaves and twigs as described.



FIGURE 157.—Flat-headed apple-tree borer feeding between bark and wood of apple tree. Slightly enlarged



FIGURE 158.—Apple tree girdled and killed by flat-headed apple-tree borers

FLAT-HEADED APPLE-TREE BORER

The flat-headed apple-tree borer (*Chrysobothris femorata* Fab.) is second in importance to the roundheaded borer and, unlike the latter, seldom attacks vigorous, healthy trees. It will, however, infest those that are weakened from various causes, particularly trees that lean strongly one way (fig. 156), thus exposing a portion of the trunk to the sun, where the beetles prefer to lay their eggs. The larva or borer (fig. 157) causes injury to apple trees (fig. 158) by feeding between the bark and sapwood of the trunk and larger branches. On young trees a single borer may nearly or actually kill them, especially newly planted trees that fail to start off right. A related species (*C. mali* Horn) is frequently complained of on the Pacific coast on account of its injuries to young trees.

The larvae usually are present on the sunny side of the trees, especially in the case of large trees, and the dead area may be enlarged from year to year by successive generations eating out the fresh tissues adjacent to the old. Although this insect seldom produces visible castings, its

presence nevertheless can be frequently detected by the darker and slightly depressed bark over the area in which the borers are feeding. The flat-headed borer is native to this country and is generally distributed in important fruit-growing regions. It feeds upon a wide variety of hosts, including the apple and other deciduous fruit trees as well as many forest trees.



FIGURE 159.—The flat-headed apple-tree borer (adult). Three times natural size

pupa in the spring and shortly after the apple blooms. The adult (fig. 159) is a rather flat beetle, having a dark metallic color, and measures about a half inch in length. The beetles are active and frequent the sunny side of the trees. After mating, the females search the bark for

LIFE HISTORY AND HABITS

a crack or opening in which to deposit their eggs. The eggs (fig. 160) are about one-fiftieth of an inch long, ribbed, and yellowish. They hatch in the course of two or three weeks, and the larvae begin to gnaw their way beneath the bark, where they feed and develop, provided the trees are not in good health. The borer is unable to thrive in vigorous trees having a strong flow of sap, although it will sometimes continue to live in a dwarfed condition until the tree is weakened by another agency, thus giving the borer a chance to grow, in which case the life cycle may be extended to two years or more instead of the normal 1-year period.



FIGURE 160.—Eggs of flat-headed apple-tree borer. Enlarged 15 times

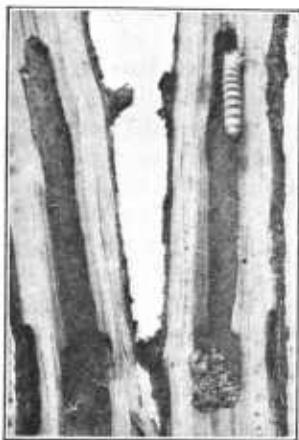


FIGURE 161.—Nearly mature larva of the spotted apple-tree borer working in heart of apple wood

PREVENTIVE MEASURES

The most practical means of dealing with this insect is to keep the trees resistant by proper cultivation, fertilization, pruning, and any

other orchard practice that will maintain the tree in an upright, thrifty, and healthy condition. When borers are found, the most satisfactory remedy known is to cut them out with a knife, care being taken not to injure the trees.

SPOTTED APPLE-TREE BORER

The spotted apple-tree borer (*Saperda cretata* Newman) is sometimes of considerable importance in certain localities. Its injuries are somewhat similar to those of the roundheaded apple-tree borer, except that it more commonly works in the upper parts of the trunk and branches, giving the trees an unthrifty and sickly appearance. When abundant it frequently kills young trees and branches of older trees. The presence of this insect is most readily detected by means of the sawdustlike castings which are pushed out of the burrows or by the cankerous appearance of the infested wood. The general habitat of this native beetle ranges from Canada through the New England and Middle Atlantic States westward to Iowa, and it has also been reported from Texas. It has attracted most attention in parts of Michigan, Iowa, and Wisconsin. In addition to the cultivated apple, this insect is recorded as infesting the wild crab apple, thorn trees, and juniper.



FIGURE 163.—Exit holes made by beetles of the spotted apple-tree borer



FIGURE 162.—Pupa of spotted apple-tree borer. Natural size

LIFE HISTORY

During the winter the insect is in the larval stage within the burrow, and during the winter preceding its transformation to the adult the insect is to be found in the pupal chamber at the upper end of its gallery, usually in the heartwood of a branch or small trunk. The mature larvae, or grubs (fig. 161), are legless, about an inch or slightly more in length, whitish, with brownish head and black jaws. In the spring the grubs change to yellowish-white pupae, about two-thirds of an inch in length. (Fig. 162.) Later the adult beetle gnaws its way through the bark and escapes through the small round exit hole (fig. 163) which has a diameter of about one-fourth of an inch. The females (fig. 164) are



FIGURE 164.—Female beetle of spotted apple-tree borer about to deposit an egg. About natural size

approximately two-thirds of an inch or more in length, while the males are somewhat smaller. The brownish beetles have white sides and are most easily distinguished from the roundheaded apple-tree borer by the two white spots on each wing cover and the longer white spot on each side of the thorax.

The beetles feed upon the tender bark of twigs, on leaf petioles, and also to a slight extent upon the leaves. (Fig. 165.) The creamy-white eggs, which soon become brownish, are inserted between the bark and the wood. (Fig. 166.) Upon hatching the larva commences to gnaw out its burrow, and if two larvae hatch from eggs placed in the same repository they usually feed in opposite directions, resulting in a more or less complete girdling of the branch. By the end of the first season, or early in the next, the larva usually tunnels into the heartwood,

FIGURE 165.—Apple leaf partly eaten by beetle of spotted apple-tree borer

and in the case of a borer with a 2-year cycle completes its pupal chamber at the close of the second season. The general life cycle ranges from two to four years, depending on latitude and other conditions, with perhaps three years, as the common period over most of the area of its distribution.

CONTROL

In all probability many of the beetles are killed, before they can lay any eggs, by means of the poison sprays employed against the codling moth and other chewing insects. In infested trees the larval tunnels can best be located by searching for the sawdust castings or the infested wood, as indicated by its cankerous appearance. The borers when found should be killed with a knife, wire, or other suitable tool. Branches that are heavily infested should be pruned off and destroyed. As a further aid in reducing injury, it is advisable to cut down all the wild host plants growing in the neighborhood of the orchard, thereby destroying natural breeding grounds.



FIGURE 166.—Chain of punctures of spotted apple-tree borer in apple bark accompanying oviposition scar. Eggs were deposited at broad place about center of chain

APPLE CROTCH BORER

The apple crotch borer (*Aegeria pyri* Harris), also known as the pear borer, is of comparatively minor importance, although, if searched for, it may frequently be found in the roughened crotches of apple trees (fig. 167) or in bark wounds caused by other borers, by diseases, implements, etc. This injury is caused by the larvae (fig. 168), which feed on the inner bark or occasionally make shallow burrows into the sapwood. Their presence results in slight injury to the tree, except in instances of severe infestation, when the affected part may be killed, or in extreme cases the tree itself may die. The same trees are usually attacked year after year on account of the roughened or broken areas of the bark, and these places are preferred by the larvae for feeding purposes. The apple crotch borer is a native pest. It is rather generally distributed in the Eastern States and has also been found farther west—in Michigan, Missouri, Mississippi, and Texas. The recorded food plants, in addition to the apple, include the juneberry, thorn, mountain-ash, and the cherry affected with black knot.

LIFE HISTORY

During the winter the insect is in the larval stage, well protected in its silken hibernaculum or winter quarters, which is formed within its burrow. In the spring a cocoon (fig. 169) is made, usually beneath the bark scales, after which the pupal stage is entered. The full-grown larva is yellowish white, with a brown head, and averages about three-fifths of an inch in length. The brownish pupa is about one-third of an inch long. The adult, which issues during the summer, is a small moth (fig. 170) with a wing expanse of one-half to three-fourths of an inch. It has clear, fringed wings, the tips of which are metallic black. The upper part of the moth is purplish black, marked with white and yellow on the head, yellow on the thorax, and with three more or less distinct yellowish bands on the abdomen. The lower parts of the moth, including the legs, are conspicuously marked with golden yellow. The moths deposit their very minute, oval, glistening, brownish eggs on roughened surfaces or in cracks or other broken places of the bark. Upon hatching, the larvae feed on the inner bark as described. According to the life-history studies of the Bureau of Entomology, some individuals have a 1-year life cycle, while others re-



FIGURE 167.—Young apple tree injured at crotch by the apple crotch borer



FIGURE 168.—Larva of apple crotch borer in hibernaculum. About natural size

quire two years to complete their transformation from the egg to the adult stage, this difference being attributed to climatic and food conditions and the time of hatching.

CONTROL

Fortunately this borer works close to the bark surface, making it a comparatively easy matter to remove the larvae with a knife without inflicting much injury to the tree. After the roughened bark has been scraped and the borers removed, it is advisable to paint the surfaces with either a coal-tar creosote or pure white-lead paint. If these surfaces are repainted from time to time, new infestations will be largely prevented. While this insect is not always readily detected, its location is usually indicated by a small drop of moisture and the dark pastelike frass which is exuded from the feeding area.



FIGURE 169.—Cocoon of apple crotch borer, exposed by removing scales of apple bark. About twice natural size.

reddish insects themselves. The twigs often become more or less deformed as a result of the attack. On the roots the aphids cause swellings and deformities (fig. 172) which often involve most of the roots of the tree, resulting in a sickly or stunted tree of but little fruiting capacity. It has been recently determined that the woolly apple aphid is native to North America. It is now of widespread occurrence, being found in practically all the apple-growing districts of the world. It is particularly serious in the semiarid regions of the West, where the dry climatic conditions apparently favor its development. The principal food plants are the apple and elm, and those of lesser importance include thorn apple, quince, pear, and mountain-ash.

WOOLLY APPLE APHID

The wooly aphid (*Eriosoma lanigerum* Hausm.) is unlike the other aphids found on the apple in that it attacks the tree both above and below ground. The aerial colonies when abundant are quite conspicuous. (Fig. 171.) They are found upon the trunk, limbs, and twigs, being concentrated on tender growth or wherever the wood has been injured, as by tree crickets, the periodical cicada, etc. The aphid colonies appear as whitish, cottony masses, beneath which are the

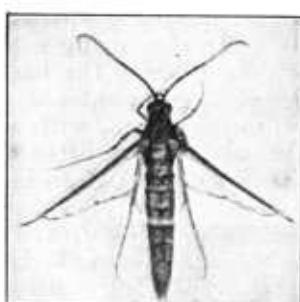


FIGURE 170.—Adult moth of apple crotch borer. Two and one-half times natural size.

LIFE HISTORY

The life history of this insect is rather intricate. Briefly, winter eggs are laid in crevices of the bark on the elm and occasionally on the apple. The eggs deposited on the former are brownish and are covered with delicate, waxy hairs, and they hatch in the spring with the opening of the elm leaf buds, upon which the young aphids feed. As soon as winged aphids are produced on the elm some migrate to the apple, where they establish colonies which feed thereon during the summer. In addition to wintering in the egg stage, some

wingless individuals remain above and below ground on the apple in certain districts where the winters are not too severe. Some of the root forms remain underground throughout their life. The wingless viviparous females are salmon brown, changing with age to dark brown or purplish. The body is more or less concealed beneath a white, waxy covering, forming long, white tufts on the posterior parts. The winged viviparous females are brown to purplish, with dark-brown to black head and thorax, depending on age. The body is covered with white or bluish-white waxy threads, more prominent on the posterior portion. The wings are transparent and the appendages are partly black.

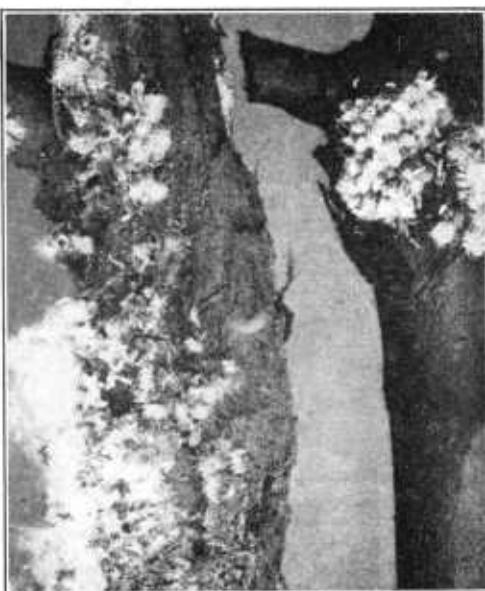


FIGURE 171.—Aerial colonies of the woolly apple aphid

PREVENTION AND CONTROL

The aphid colonies above ground may be killed by means of a contact spray, as nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine), three-eights of a pint to 50 gallons of water in which 2 pounds of soap has been dissolved, or by the use of 10 per cent kerosene emulsion. Since these insects are well protected by their woolly covering the spray must be forcibly applied, care being taken to soak each colony very thoroughly.



FIGURE 172.—Nodular roots as a result of attack by the woolly apple aphid

It is extremely difficult to effect satisfactory control of the root-infesting forms. Many treatments, such as tobacco refuse applied about the roots, fumigation with carbon disulphide, etc., have been tried, but none can be unqualifiedly recommended. The most practical method is to fertilize and cultivate the trees so as to keep them in a thrifty, growing condition in spite of the aphids that may inhabit the roots.

MISCELLANEOUS INJURIES

Although the primary purpose of this bulletin is to acquaint the fruit grower with the injuries and means of control of the more important apple insects, it is believed that brief mention of other agencies, exclusive of diseases which at times occasion more or less damage, may be of some interest and value.

FROSTS AND FREEZES

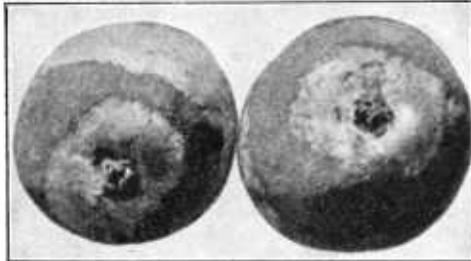


FIGURE 173.—Apples injured by frost, producing the so-called "frost ring"

The occurrence of heavy frosts and freezing temperatures shortly after the fruit has set or while it is still quite small frequently results in deforming the fruit, the skin of which will often be marked with the so-called frost ring or band (fig. 173), which appears as a more or less distinct belt of brown corklike tissue. These frost

bands sometimes completely encircle the fruit and are often conspicuous at harvest. In some instances small cracks develop in the affected area. Another type of frost injury is sometimes in evidence at the calyx or blossom end (fig. 174), in which will be found one or more small pockets or pits. Since it is practically impossible to fill these pits with poison, such fruit is quite susceptible to codling-moth injury.

HAIL

The attempts of orchardists to grow perfect fruit are often vitiated by uncontrollable factors, among which hail plays an important rôle. Hailstorms of varying severity occasion local losses in one part of the country or another practically every year. If the injury does not occur toon near harvest, the hail pits will usually heal over as small corky areas. The damage, however, is not confined to the hail marks, since pronounced codling-moth injury sometimes follows in the wake of the hail, particularly when the storm occurs during the active hatching period of this pest, which gains ready access to the flesh of the fruit by way of the broken skin. Apples on the outside and exposed portions of the trees are naturally injured the most, and it sometimes happens that only one side of the tree is affected, depending upon the direction from which the storm has come.

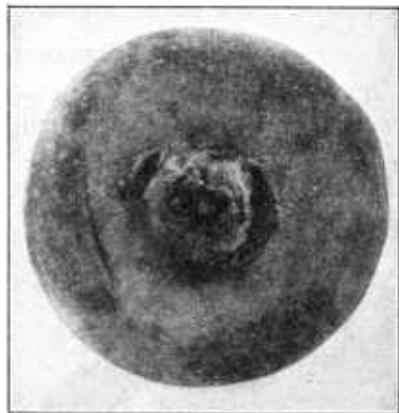


FIGURE 174.—Frost injury, calyx end of apple. Codling-moth larvae frequently enter the apple through the frost pits

WIND

The wind is at times responsible for a certain amount of injury to the fruit, causing the so-called "limb rub." The skin of apples thus affected is more or less discolored where it has been bruised by chafing against a branch or limb.

SPRAY BURN

Spray solutions, such as combinations of lead arsenate and lime-sulphur or lead arsenate and Bordeaux mixture, sometimes cause distinct injury to the fruit and foliage. The fruit is often russeted (fig. 175), especially when the spray is applied too forcibly, or in the case of mixtures containing Bordeaux when used during the calyx and first cover-spray treatments or later in the season when followed by much damp or rainy weather. The foliage may be injured by either of the foregoing combinations, and this is particularly true in the case of weak and unthrifty trees. Lime-sulphur injury to the fruit often follows if the spray is applied in midsummer on hot, sunny days.

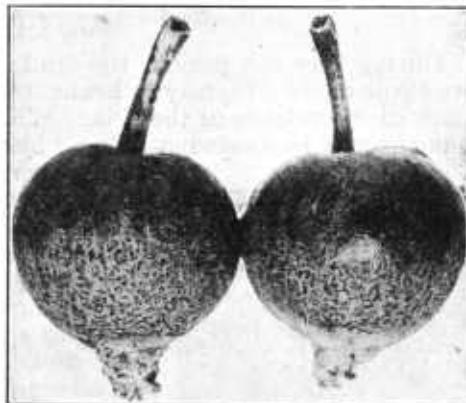


FIGURE 175.—Apples russeted by Bordeaux mixture

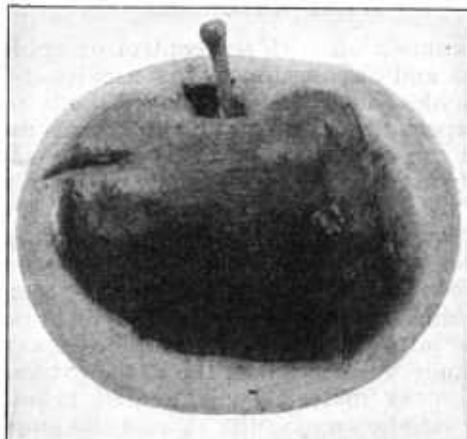


FIGURE 176.—Typical lime-sulphur burning on apple

The affected fruit is greatly disfigured by a somewhat circular brownish-black spot, which is sometimes as large as or larger than a half-dollar. (Fig. 176.) Apples on the southwest side of the tree are most likely to be damaged. In the Eastern States this type of injury has rarely been commercially serious, though sometimes conspicuous. In hot, sunny regions, where this form of injury is of frequent occurrence, fruit growers should use the sulphur sprays only in the cooler spring weather.

INJURIES FROM INJECTIONS INTO TREE

Every now and then "tree doctors" put in an appearance and endeavor to sell materials which they guarantee will free the tree of all noxious pests. Usually these compounds are to be injected into

the tree trunk on the theory that they will be carried by the sap to all parts of the tree, thereby destroying the undesirable parasites. Such injections are without value and may cause severe injury. (Fig. 177.) Fruit growers would do well to employ only the materials and methods recommended by their State experiment station or the United States Department of Agriculture.

SUN SCALD

During very hot periods the fruit, particularly that on the southwest side of the tree, may be heated to such an extent as to cause large dark discolorations of the skin. Where this trouble is prevalent the damage may be somewhat reduced by not pruning the susceptible portion as heavily as the rest of the tree.

The trunks of trees, especially those in young orchards, are sometimes blistered on the southwest and west sides by the hot afternoon sun. A similar type of injury is more commonly produced by severe winter freezing and rapid thawing by the afternoon sun. To overcome this trouble trees may be protected by shading them with wooden strips driven into the ground rather close to the tree. The planting of high-growing cover-crops or the intercropping of the young orchard with corn or other tall crops will also serve to protect the trees from too strong an exposure during the summer season.



FIGURE 177.—Tree injured by use of compound sold by a "tree doctor"

are now on the market. Since the active ingredients of the latter are usually made up of one or more of the standard spray materials, combined with fillers of inert substances, it is obvious that there is no particular reason for using them in preference to the standard spray materials. As a matter of economy and efficiency, the apple grower would do well to employ the spray materials enumerated below, which, if rightly used, will give satisfactory results against the more important apple insects and fungous diseases.

LEAD ARSENATE⁶

Lead arsenate is the most reliable and efficient poison for external chewing insects. It is now sold almost exclusively in the form of a

⁶ For more complete information on spray materials see U. S. Department of Agriculture Farmers' Bulletin 908, Insecticides, Equipment, and Methods for Controlling Orchard Insect Pests.

⁶ Under the term "lead arsenate," the ordinary acid lead arsenate is designated. The so-called basic lead arsenate is but little used, and only under special conditions.

fluffy powder, and in this form it is readily handled and can be held over from one year to the next by keeping it dry. Throughout this bulletin the quantities recommended are for lead arsenate powder. If the paste form is employed it will be necessary to double the quantity in order to get a spray which is equivalent in strength to that recommended. Lead arsenate can be combined with nicotine solutions and with either lime sulphur or Bordeaux mixture for the simultaneous control of many chewing and sucking insects and fungous diseases.

LIME-SULPHUR

Lime-sulphur is used both as an insecticide and as a fungicide. It is recommended as a dormant spray against the scale insects and blister mite, and at greatly diluted strengths as a summer spray for apple scab and certain other diseases.

NICOTINE

Nicotine, either commercial, as nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine), or homemade decoctions, is the best contact insecticide for sucking insects such as apple aphids, red bugs, etc. If used alone, soap should be added as a spreader, but if combined with mixtures containing lime-sulphur solution the soap should be omitted. When added to Bordeaux mixture and lead arsenate, a pound or so of soap to 50 gallons of spray may be used if desired.

LUBRICATING-OIL EMULSION

An oil emulsion made from lubricating oil (red engine oil) and potassium fish-oil soap is now widely employed as a dormant spray for the apple. It is generally used at a strength of from 2 to 4 per cent of oil in the diluted spray. The seriousness of the insect infestation and local experience with the effectiveness of oil sprays at different dilutions should guide the grower in deciding on the strength to use.

Lubricating-oil emulsion may be made by the well-known boiled and pumped method or by the cold-stirred process. A cold-stirred lubricating-oil emulsion made with rosin-potassium fish-oil soap as the emulsifying agent has recently been developed for use in certain limestone, hard-water districts. Lubricating-oil emulsion is the most effective dormant spray known for the control of the San Jose scale and other scale insects, the European red mite, and certain other apple pests.

KEROSENE EMULSION

Kerosene emulsion is a relatively cheap and effective contact spray for sucking insects, but unless very well made and carefully used it may cause foliage injury. It has a further disadvantage in that it can not be used in combination with the other standard spray materials.

MISCIBLE OILS

Miscible, or soluble, oils, either homemade or proprietary, may be employed as dormant sprays for scale insects, the fruit-tree leaf roller, etc. In the use of proprietary oils, the strength recommended by the manufacturer should be employed.

BORDEAUX MIXTURE

The well-known fungicide, Bordeaux mixture, is used against certain diseases, notably apple bitter rot, which are not held in check by lime-sulphur.

DUSTING MATERIALS⁷

The dry application of insecticides and fungicides has been tried experimentally and commercially for many years. In some instances satisfactory results have been obtained, but, on the whole, dust mixtures have not given so efficient control as liquid sprays, and in certain apple districts have been quite ineffective. The dust mixtures now usually employed contain 10 per cent of lead arsenate and from 75 to 90 per cent of finely divided sulphur. A filler, such as hydrated lime or gypsum, is often desirable, as its admixture makes a better flowing dust and lessens the cost of the mixture. It is believed that a 75 per cent sulphur content will yield as good results as a higher percentage.

A complete dust mixture, containing lead arsenate, sulphur, and nicotine, has been tried out during the past few years, the nicotine having been added in an effort to combat apple aphids, red bugs, etc. Some success has been reported with this mixture, but the quantity of nicotine required makes the application somewhat expensive.

TREE-BANDING MATERIALS⁸

Bands of sticky material 4 to 5 inches wide applied around tree trunks sometimes may be used to advantage to prevent caterpillars, climbing from climbing trees. These

FIGURE 178.—Construction of tree band made of cotton and tarred paper

cutworms, and certain other insects bands are also employed to prevent nonflying and wingless moths, such as the gipsy moth, cankerworm moths, tussock moths, etc., from ascending trees to deposit their eggs. Cotton batting and wire screen also are used in making protective bands.

The indiscriminate use of these bands, as well as mechanical barriers, is to be discouraged. Their use in parks is sometimes noted on trees which are not subject to attack by any insects that would be stopped by them. As a rule, it is advisable to obtain advice as to their use from entomologists.

STICKY TREE BANDS

Sticky bands are sometimes injurious to the tree, but injury may be avoided by spreading the adhesive on a strip of heavy paper encircling the tree trunk. A form of band that has given satisfactory

⁷ For more complete information on dusting materials see U. S. Department of Agriculture Farmers' Bulletin 908.

⁸ For more complete information on tree-banding materials see U. S. Department of Agriculture Farmers' Bulletin 908.

results is made from cheap cotton batting and single-ply tarred building paper. The cotton should be cut into strips about 2 inches wide and wrapped around the tree trunk so as to fill all the crevices of the bark. Over the cotton is placed a strip of tarred paper (fig. 178) about 5 inches wide, drawn tightly and securely tacked where it overlaps. The sticky material is then spread on top of the paper. (Fig. 179.)

COTTON BATTING

Barriers other than sticky bands are sometimes used to prevent insects from crawling up trees.

Bands of cotton batting about 6 to 8 inches wide are effective as long as the cotton remains fluffy. Wrap the band around the tree trunk and securely tie the bottom edge by means of stout twine. (Fig. 180.) The upper edge should then be turned down over the string, forming a flange of loose cotton all around the tree. (Fig. 181.)



FIGURE 180.—Method of construction of cotton tree band

critical spray periods. The purchase of investment that will pay very liberal dividends. The capacity of



FIGURE 179.—Completed tree band of cotton and tarred paper with band of sticky material

SPRAYING AND DUSTING APPARATUS⁹

It is generally recognized by progressive fruit growers that the sprayer and its equipment are very important factors in the production of clean fruit. Fortunately, it is possible to obtain satisfactory outfits which, with proper care and attention, will give years of good service. Although the first cost of a well-made sprayer may appear somewhat high, no fruit grower can afford to be without a reliable outfit that will meet his requirements during the use of an efficient sprayer is an

⁹ For more complete information on spraying and dusting apparatus see U. S. Department of Agriculture Farmers' Bulletin 908.

an outfit should be larger than needed under ideal working conditions, since unfavorable and unforeseen circumstances may interfere and make it necessary to have reserve power with which to complete the work in time. Large-scale operators should have an extra sprayer or two to provide against emergencies, and extra parts should be kept on hand to replace those that are broken or worn.



FIGURE 181.—Completed cotton tree band.

For those having relatively few trees a hand-pump outfit, as a barrel pump, may suffice, but generally speaking it is better economy to employ a power sprayer (fig. 182), even in the case of comparatively small acreages. Reliable power outfits are made in different sizes to meet the demands of small to large growers.

The hose and couplings should be of the best materials, since these are subject to considerable pressure and strain, particularly in the case of high-power sprayers.

The selection of the proper spray nozzles, rods, or spray guns will depend largely upon the capacity of the outfit and other factors.

A power machine for applying dust materials is shown in Figure 183.

APPLE-SPRAYING SCHEDULES

As has been explained in the foregoing pages, fruit trees and fruits are simultaneously attacked by many insects and fungous diseases, as the codling moth, plant lice, apple scab, etc. It is therefore desirable, and fortunately possible, by a combination of insecticidal and fungicidal materials to effect the control of these several troubles by one and the same spray application, as by a spray of dilute lime-sulphur, lead arsenate, and nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine). Entomologists and pathologists have given much study to developing combination treatments of this kind in order to save the grower the extra cost and time of separate treatments. Also, spray schedules have been developed for the more important insect and fungous diseases of the apple,



FIGURE 182.—A power spray outfit equipped with tower for spraying tall trees

peach, grape, and the like. While it is always desirable that an orchardist know as much as possible about his insect and fungous pests, yet he will be able to obtain much success in their control simply by carefully following a series of spray applications timed so as to treat most effectively the various troubles present on the trees or fruit. Although it is not possible by the following of spray schedules to control all of the enemies of the apple, a very large proportion of those controllable by sprays can be kept down by the use of the spray-schedule plan. In the subsequent pages schedules are presented covering the principal orchard districts of the country, which may be modified in accordance with the needs of individual orchardists. In this connection it should be borne in mind that the relative abundance of pests varies from year to year as influenced by weather and other conditions. The apple grower



FIGURE 183.—A power dusting outfit at work

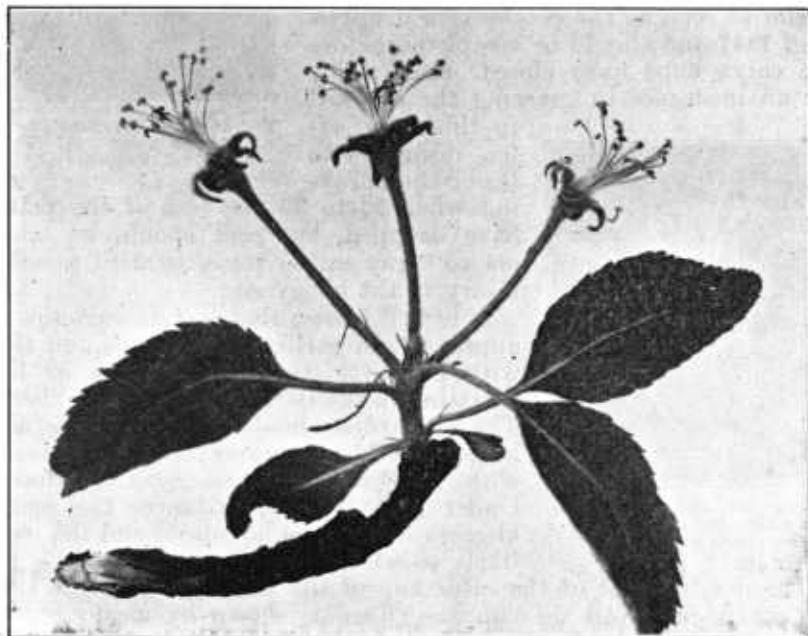


FIGURE 184.—Proper stage at which to begin calyx application

should therefore be constantly on the alert and prepared to cope with any unusual conditions that may arise from time to time. If the fruit grower is not well acquainted with his insect and fungous troubles, he will do well to consult the State agricultural experiment station, the United States Department of Agriculture, or some other competent agency interested in the suppression of orchard pests.



FIGURE 185.—Too late to make calyx application

against the codling moth. The primary object of this application is to fill each calyx cup with poison in order to kill the worms that attempt to enter the fruit through the calyx or blossom end. The time within which this spray can be effectively applied is limited and every effort should be made to do the work within the prescribed period. The spraying should be begun as soon as the petals have dropped (fig. 184) and should be completed before the calyx cups have closed. (Fig. 185.) As an insurance in covering the orchard

in time it is often desirable to begin the spraying when 85 to 90 per cent of the petals have dropped, but care should be taken not to spray earlier on account of possible injury to the honeybees.

It is well known that certain varieties of apples bloom earlier than others and that with each variety there is more or less variation in the development of the bloom. The orchardist should therefore carefully inspect the blossoms and time the spraying with reference to those most advanced. Under ordinary circumstances the center blossom is the most advanced and the most likely to set fruit.

The development of the calyx cup of the Baldwin from the time the petals fall until the cup has closed is shown by means of the vertical sections in Figures 186, 187, 188, and 189. In Figure 186,

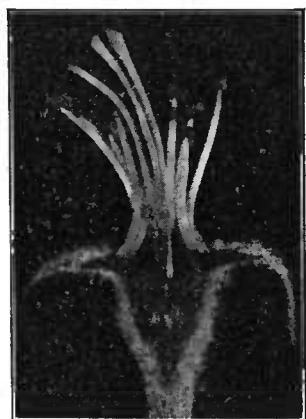


FIGURE 186.—Vertical section of apple calyx cup. Petals have just dropped



FIGURE 187.—Vertical section of apple calyx cup six days after petals dropped

which represents the cup just after the dropping of the petals, it will be noted that the sepals are about at right angles to the flowering parts and form a broad, shallow cup which can be readily coated with the poison spray. Six days later, as shown in Figure 187, the sepals have grown upward, making the cup somewhat V-shaped. In Figure 188, which represents the cup eight days after the petals have dropped, the sepals have advanced further toward the closing point, forming a U-shaped cup. Spraying at this stage is still effective, since the cup is open sufficiently to admit the poison. Two days later, however, or a total of 10 days after the petals have dropped, as shown in Figure 189, the sepals have grown together and the cup is practically closed. At this stage of development it is impossible to force the poison into the cup, and hence too late to apply the calyx spray.

The rapidity of closing of the calyx cup varies somewhat with the variety and with the weather conditions. If the spraying is begun when 85 to 90 per cent of the blossoms have dropped, the time within which the calyx application should be made will usually cover a period of a week to 10 days. The orchardist, however, should not depend upon the longer period, but, instead, should provide against unfavorable weather and other unforeseen interruptions by employing sufficient help and spray machines to complete the work within a week.

The time at which the various sprays should be applied, together with the proper strength to use, is shown in Table 1. The dormant and delayed-dormant sprays are shown first, after which are given in order the summer sprays, which are numbered according to the customary method of designating these sprays as

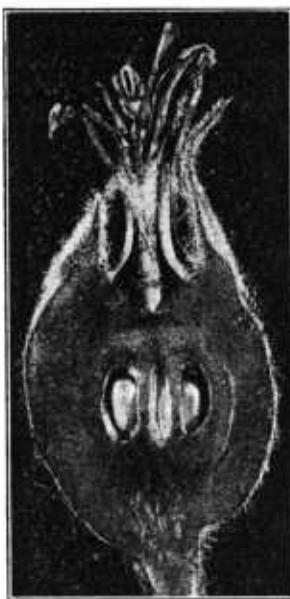


FIGURE 189.—Vertical section of apple calyx cup 10 days after petals dropped

used by growers. In Table 2 these numbers identify the sprays as called for by local or regional conditions.

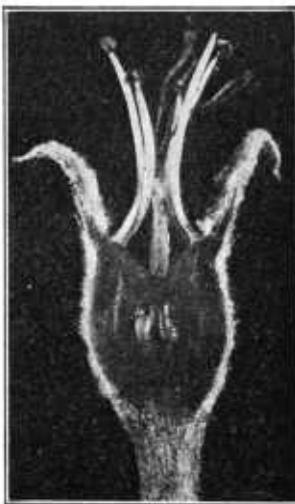


FIGURE 188.—Vertical section of apple calyx cup 8 days after petals dropped

TABLE 1.—*Apple-spraying schedules*¹

A. WINTER OR DORMANT SPRAYS

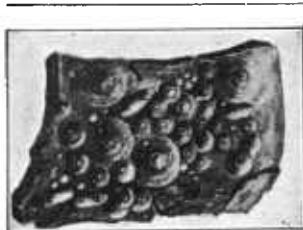


FIGURE 190.—San Jose scale



FIGURE 191.—Proper stage at which to make delayed-dormant application. Note aphids clustered on the tip of the bud

¹ Directions for control of fungous diseases furnished by Bureau of Plant Industry, U. S. Department of Agriculture. See also Farmers' Bulletin 938 for information on apple bitter rot, Farmers' Bulletin 147 for information on apple scab, and Farmers' Bulletin 1479 for information on apple blotch.

Time of dormant and delayed-dormant applications	Spray materials and dilutions
<p><i>Dormant.</i>—The dormant spray may be applied at any time (except during freezing weather) after the leaves drop in the fall until the buds swell in the spring. As a matter of economy and efficiency it is preferable to make the dormant application after the trees have been pruned. This treatment is chiefly for the control of the scale insects (fig. 190), pear-leaf blister-mite, European red mite, etc.</p>	<p>Lubricating-oil emulsions 2 to 4 per cent, miscible oils at strength recommended by manufacturer, or lime-sulphur (32° Baumé) 6½ gallons with water to make a total of 50 gallons. The oil sprays are to be preferred as general clean-up sprays.</p>
<p><i>Delayed dormant.</i>—If it is desired to control the above insects and aphids in a single application, the dormant spray may be delayed until the bud tips show green. (Fig. 191.) The spraying should be completed by the time the leaf tips have commenced to separate in order to avoid possible injury to the unfolding buds and to obtain satisfactory results against the aphids. (Fig. 192.)</p>	<p>Use the same materials at the same dilutions as recommended for the dormant application. In selecting a spray it should be remembered that lime-sulphur helps to control scab. Add to whichever spray is selected $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ pint of nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) to each 50 gallons. If the dormant application has already been made and it is desired to spray for aphids only, use $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ pint of nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine) to each 50 gallons of water in which 2 pounds of soap has been dissolved.</p>

TABLE 1.—*Apple-spraying schedules*—Continued

B. SUMMER SPRAYS

Spray No.	Time of summer spray applica- tions for the more important insects and fungous diseases	Dilutions
1	<p><i>Pink cluster-bud.</i>—This spray should be applied when the blossom buds first begin to separate and should be completed before any of the blossoms open. It is a very important application for apple scale wherever this disease is prevalent. (Fig. 192.) It is also of value in the control of the plum curculio, tent caterpillars, cankerworms, etc. If aphids are present and the leaves are not too badly curled, the addition of nicotine to the spray will aid somewhat in reducing the infestation. In several fruit districts apple scab is often serious and may require a prepink spray. It should be applied when the cluster buds are first exposed. This is an intermediate spray between the delayed dormant and pink cluster-bud application.</p>	<p>For chewing insects and fungous diseases use lead arsenate powder 1 pound combined with lime-sulphur (32° Baumé) $1\frac{1}{2}$ gallons diluted with sufficient water to make 50 gallons. Nicotine sulphate (40 per cent nicotine), in the proportion of $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ pint, may be added to the above for apple aphids and red bugs. In arid regions reduce the quantity of lime-sulphur to 1 gallon.</p>
2	<p><i>Calyx or petals off.</i>—Spray as soon as blossom petals have dropped and complete the application before the calyx cups have closed. (Fig. 193.) Use good pressure and spray thoroughly so as to fill every calyx cup. This is the most important single application for the codling moth and is of value against the plum curculio, apple scab, etc.</p>	<p>Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur as in the first summer application.</p>
3	<p><i>Two to four weeks after petals-off application.</i>—This application is important for the first brood of the codling moth (fig. 194), which begins to hatch within this period and for other chewing insects, apple scab, leaf-spot, and blotch. Where blotch has been prevalent use Bordeaux mixture in place of the lime-sulphur, and complete the spraying not later than 3 weeks after the falling of the petals. In certain sections where blotch is epidemic, an intermediate spray application should be given about midway between 3 and 4.</p>	<p>Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur as in the first summer application, except that Bordeaux mixture (3-4-50) should be used in place of the lime-sulphur in districts where blotch is present.</p>

FIGURE 192.—Much too late to make delayed dormant application. Note apple aphids feeding at base of leaves. In most sections the first application for apple scab should be made at this stage.



FIGURE 193.—Proper time to make calyx application



FIGURE 194.—Apples infested with the codling moth

TABLE 1.—*Apple-spraying schedules*—Continued

B. SUMMER SPRAYS—Continued

Spray No.	Time of summer spray applications for the more important insects and fungous diseases.	Dilutions
4	<i>Eight to ten weeks after "petals off" application.</i> —A very important application in all districts having two or more broods of the codling moth and for many species of caterpillars (fig. 195) and other chewing insects as well as for bitter-rot, blotch, and late scab infection. Where bitter-rot or blotch have been serious spray about 6 to 7 weeks after "petals off" application.	Same spray materials as above except that if Bordeaux mixture is used the 4-4-50 formula should be employed.
5	Additional treatments where the codling moth (fig. 196) or bitter-rot are prevalent. Where late spraying is necessary, the fruit at harvest may be more or less covered with spray residue. This should be removed from the fruit before it is barreled or boxed. Any arsenical residue in excess of the tolerance established by the Federal Food and Drug Administration, as well as copper residues, should be removed before the fruit is packed.	Same spray materials as for spray No. 4.

FIGURE 195.—Fall webworm caterpillars and others are common during midsummer

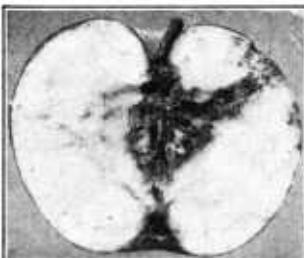


FIGURE 196.—Wormy apple due to codling moth attack

REGIONAL APPLE-SPRAYING SCHEDULES

In the spraying schedules for different orchard districts, which are given in Table 2, the numerals refer to the number of the spray as given in Table 1. In these regional apple-spraying schedules intermediate spray applications are indicated as may be required to meet specific needs.

TABLE 2.—*Regional adaptation for apple-spraying schedules*

Region	Apply spray No.—				
	1	2	3	4	5
New England States.....	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur.	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur.	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur.	
Middle Atlantic States.....	do.....	do.....	Lead arsenate and Bordeaux mixture in place of lime-sulphur in sections having varieties susceptible to blotch.	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur. Lead arsenate and Bordeaux mixture in place of lime-sulphur in sections having varieties susceptible to bitter rot and blotch.	
South Atlantic States.....	do.....	do.....	Lead arsenate and Bordeaux mixture in place of lime sulphur in sections having varieties susceptible to blotch. Where blotch is severe make an intermediate application midway between 3 and 4.	do.....	Depending on the locality, varieties, weather, and other conditions, from 2 to 4 additional treatments of lead arsenate and Bordeaux mixture will often be necessary. Remove the excess arsenical residue. Do.
Ohio Valley.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	
Great Lakes States.....	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur. A prepink spray of lime-sulphur is frequently necessary for scab control.	do.....	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur.	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur.	
Central Mississippi Valley and the Ozark district.....	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur.	do.....	Lead arsenate and Bordeaux mixture in place of lime-sulphur. In sections where blotch is severe make an intermediate application midway between 3 and 4.	Lead arsenate and Bordeaux mixture.	One or two additional treatments of lead arsenate and Bordeaux mixture about 2 weeks apart, and in severe bitter-rot cases make additional applications of the Bordeaux-lead arsenate spray. Remove excess arsenical residue. If the codling moth and bitter rot are prevalent, apply additional sprays of lead arsenate and Bordeaux mixture. Remove excess arsenical residue.
West Central States.....	do.....	do.....	Lead arsenate and Bordeaux mixture in place of lime-sulphur in sections having varieties susceptible to blotch. Where blotch is severe make an intermediate application midway between 3 and 4.	do.....	

TABLE 2.—*Regional adaptation for apple-spraying schedules—Continued*

Region	Apply spray No.—				
	1	2	3	4	5
Semiarid Western States		Lead arsenate. Fungicides are seldom necessary.	Lead arsenate. Where the codling moth is abundant make 1 or 2 additional applications between 3 and 4.	Lead arsenate	In the control of the codling moth it will often be necessary to make one or two additional treatments with lead arsenate. Remove excess arsenical residue.
Pacific Northwest (humid)	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur for apple scab, powdery mildew, or other fungous diseases. If scab is prevalent use lime-sulphur in the prepink stage.	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur for fungous diseases. Follow 2 in from 10 to 14 days with lime-sulphur spray for scab and mildew.	Lead arsenate and lime-sulphur. In certain districts an intermediate spray for the codling moth, using lead arsenate alone, between 3 and 4 will be of value.	do	
Pacific Northwest (arid)	Lead arsenate, and add lime-sulphur if apple scab, powdery mildew, or other fungous diseases are present.	Lead arsenate, and if fungous diseases are present add lime-sulphur.	Lead arsenate, and if fungous diseases are present add lime-sulphur. One or two intermediate sprays between 3 and 4 using lead arsenate alone, depending on the abundance of the codling moth.	do	In the control of the codling moth it will often be necessary to make one or two additional treatments with lead arsenate. Remove the excess arsenical residue.
California		In the Pajaro Valley use basic lead arsenate and iron sulphide in all summer applications.	Basic lead arsenate and iron sulphide.		

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